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ABSTRACT

Before presenting the plan for the improvement of teaching in the colleges and universities of Oregon's state system, this report reviews: (1) the administrative structure of the state's institutions of higher learning, including the role and function of the president and other academic officers and some aspects of the physiology of the institutions' administration, such as the formal and informal organization and the importance of the teachers' role in academic administration; (2) faculty groupings, responsiblity, and attitudes; (3) student heterogeneity, demands, participation in governance, role in planning, and evaluation of instruction; (4) factors essential to the improvement of instruction in the institutions, such as the need for basic curricular evaluation, improving the quality of service among teaching assistants, special awards for meritorious teaching, and giving greater responsibility for learning to the student; and (5) some approaches to the improvement of instruction. Suggestions are included for: an institutional plan for curricular and instructional improvement which contains provisions for reviewing curricular and course structure, recognizing teaching performance and "teaching improvement" programs etc., and for committing personal and institutional resources. (AF)

ED042416

# A Plan for the Improvement of Teaching in State System Institutions, 1969-1971

## Progress Report I

Prepared for the
Oregon State Board of Higher Education
Committee on Academic Affairs
Meeting May 21, 1968, 9:00 A.M.
Room 327, College Center, PSC

Mrs. Elizabeth H. Johnson, Chairman
Mr. J. W. Forrester, Jr.
Mr. George H. Layman

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HE 001 687

**Miles C. Romney**
**Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs**
**Oregon State System of Higher Education**

**Office of Academic Affairs**
**May 21, 1968**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ED0 42416

Page

A Plan for the Improvement of Teaching in State System Institutions, 1969-1971 . . . . . 1

- Administrative Structure in Colleges and Universities. . . . . . . . 1
  - Role and Function of the President. . . . . . . . . . . . . 2
  - Other Academic Officers . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 7
    - The Deans. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 7
    - Dean of Faculties. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 9
    - Deans of Liberal Arts. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 11
    - Deans of the Professional Schools. . . . . . . . . . 14
    - Department Heads . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 15

- Some Aspects of the Physiology of College and University Administration. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 17
  - Formal and Informal Organization . . . . . . . . . . 17
  - Instruction-Scholarship Primary Function . . . . . . . . 17
  - Teachers' Role Important in Academic Administration . . 17
  - Concepts of Collegiality and Community in Administration of Higher Education. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 18
  - A Basic Question . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 19

- The Faculty . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 21
  - The Individual Faculty Member . . . . . . . . . . . . 21
  - Faculty Groupings in Colleges and Universities. . . . . . . . 24
  - Areas of Faculty Responsibility . . . . . . . . . . . . 26
  - Faculty Attitudes Toward Participation in Governance. . . . . 27
  - The Weight of Faculty Non-Teaching Service. . . . . . . . . 29
  - Summary . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 30

- The Students . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 33
  - Heterogeneity of Students . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 33
    - State System Student Bodies Are Heterogeneous. . . . . 33

  - Heterogeneity of Students Demands Variety in Programs . . . . 34
    - No Single Standard of Excellence Is Adequate . . . . . 35
    - Grouping of Students . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 35
    - The Need to Push On. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 36

  - Subcultures Within the Student Body . . . . . . . . . . 36
  - Student Participation in Institutional Governance . . . . . . 38
  - Student Roles in Curricular Planning. . . . . . . . . . . 39
    - Student-Sponsored Courses. . . . . . . . . . . . . 42
    - California Study Committees on Student Participation in Education Policy Formation. . . . . . . . . . . 43

  - Student Evaluation of Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . 47
    - Practices Where Student Evaluations Are Used . . . . . . 48
    - Institutional Resistance to Systematic Student Evaluation of Instructors. . . . . . . . . . . 50

Table of Contents (Cont.)

Page
Summary . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 53
Students and Educational Planning . . . . . . . . . . . . . 53
Student Evaluation of Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . . . 54

Improving the Quality of Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 55
Basic Curricular Evaluation . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 56
Salary, Promotion, Tenure Policies and the Improvement of Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 61
Faculty Opinions as to Factors Involved in Determining Promotion . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 63
Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness . . . . . . . . . . . 64

Assignment of Staff As Related to Improvement of Instruction . . 67
Improving the Quality of Service Among Teaching Assistants 68
Proper Induction into Teaching of Inexperienced New Faculty Members . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 71
Encouragement of Senior Professors to Teach at the Undergraduate Level . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 71
Providing Needed Sub-professional Help for Faculty Members 71

Special Awards for Meritorious Teaching . . . . . . . . . . . 73
The Merit Award Program in Oregon (Mosser Plan) . . . . . . 74

Institutional Evaluation of Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . 79

New Approaches to Learning . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 82
The Place of New Technologies in the Teaching-Learning Equation . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 84

Putting Greater Responsibility on the Student to Learn . . . . . 87
Evidences of Institutional Acceptance of the Concept of Placing Greater Responsibility on Students . . . . . . . 88

A Sampling of Institutional Patterns for Encouraging and Rewarding Instructional Improvement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 95
Teaching Performance as a Factor in Salary, Promotion, and Tenure Decisions . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 95
Special Faculty Awards for Teaching Excellence . . . . . . . . . 95
Special Institutional Committees to Encourage Instructional Improvement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 96
Establishment of Educational Materials Centers . . . . . . . . 98
Programs for Induction of New and Inexperienced Faculty Members 98
Aid to Instructors in Appraising Their Performances . . . . . 98
Encouraging Faculty to Observe, First-Hand, Curricular and Instructional Innovations Elsewhere . . . . . . . . . . . . 99
Special Planning of Faculty with Department Heads for Appropriate Summer Activities . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 99
Application of New Media to Instruction . . . . . . . . . . . 99
Joint Activity of Institutions and the Teaching Research Division 100
Involvement of Students in Curricular Development . . . . . . 100

Table of Contents (Cont.)

Page

Basic Assumptions Underlying an Effective Program of Instructional Improvement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 103

Continuing Efforts Toward Curricular and Instructional Improvement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 107
  Institutional Plans for Curricular and Instructional Improvement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 107
  Commitment of Resources . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 112

Appendix A - The Oregon Merit Plan for Teaching Excellence, 1965-1967 117
  State System Guidelines Developed . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 118
  Reduction in Funds Available for the Merit Award Program . . . . 121
  Participation in the Merit Award Program, 1965-66 and 1966-67 . 121
  Attitude of the Institutions Toward the Merit Award Plan . . . . 122

Appendix B - Recommended Guidelines for Development of Institutional Plans for the Distribution of Merit Awards for Teaching Excellence 131
  Recommended Guidelines for Development of Institutional Plans for the Distribution of Merit Awards for Teaching Excellence 133

Appendix C - State of the Interinstitutional Committee on Merit Award Programs . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 135

~~Appendix D - Student Evaluation Forms - OSU . . . . . . . . . . . . 139~~

## LIST OF TABLES

Table I Frequency of Use of Various Sources of Information in The Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness . . . . . . . . . . . 64

Table II Frequencies With Which Various Sources of Evaluative Information Are Used in Different Types of Institutions . . 66

Table III Percentage of Schools Having Outstanding Teacher Awards . . 73

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Academic Organization Chart, OSU . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 3

Figure 2 Academic Organization Chart, SOC . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 4

# A PLAN FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING IN STATE SYSTEM INSTITUTIONS, 1969-1971

> It is imperative that ways of improving college teaching be devised and evaluated. Merely lamenting the deterioration of undergraduate teaching, deploring the overemphasis on research at the expense of teaching, or regretting the poor preparation of scholars for teaching is futile.

So says the American Council on Education, an agency created and supported by the colleges and universities of the United States, in material prepared for the council's 49th annual meeting, held October 12-14, 1966, in New Orleans, Louisiana. This is our text.

It will be our purpose in this report to present to the Board of Higher Education an approach to the improvement of teaching in the colleges and universities of the state system during the 1969-1971 biennium.

Preliminary to the presentation of the plan (pp. 107-114) we present:

- A brief review of the anatomy and physiology of institutions of higher education (pp. 1-54). Institutional structure - administrative, faculty, and student - and the functioning of the elements of that structure must necessarily be understood and acknowledged in any plan which proposes to bring about change within the institution.
- A review of selected approaches to the improvement of instruction in colleges and universities (pp. 55-94).
- A statement of the assumptions upon which the proposed plan is based (pp. 95-101). This explicit statement of the assumptions out of which the proposed plan has evolved and the principles upon which it is based will enable the reader more quickly and more surely to assess the validity of the plan.

## Administrative Structure in Colleges and Universities

We shall not here concern ourselves with the role and functioning of the State Board of Higher Education with whom rests the legal responsibility for the governance of the institutions of the state system, nor with the role and function of Chancellor, the chief administrative officer of the Board. For our concern is with the institutions themselves - with the structure of the institutions, the machinery through which the purposes of the institution are served. For in the improvement of instruction, the institutions must play the central role.

In gross structure, Oregon colleges and universities are not essentially different from their counterparts elsewhere in the United States.

- Each has an administrative hierarchy consisting of the president and a varying number of other officers, individuals, or bodies to whom the president has delegated duties incident to the administration of the institution.
- Each has a faculty, which in varying degrees, plays a role in the governance of the institution as we shall hereinafter describe.
- Each has a student body organized under a student government to which has been given varying responsibilities, depending upon the character of the administration of the institution and the role the institutional president sees as appropriate to the student organization.
- Each has an alumni body interested that their institution shall prosper and grow in its ability to serve the people of the state and nation.
- Each has constituencies who look to the institution for services - the development of a manpower pool to serve the needs of business, agriculture, and the professions, for instance, or to provide research information or professorial expertise useful to business, agriculture, or the professions.

We present on pages 3 and 4 sample organizational charts from state system institutions (OSU, SOC).

## Role and Function of the President

In retrospect, a former university administrator observed that the highest function of the university administrator is to "define, clarify or discover the aim of his institution" and that his task then is to "order means to ends."[1]

How this function is served necessarily varies with the institution and the administrator. We venture to suggest the generalization that the presidents of small institutions tend to spend a larger proportion of their time on faculty recruitment and evaluation, educational programing, and direct contact with student groups, and a smaller proportion of their time on financial matters, building and plant planning, and public relations than do the presidents of larger institutions. Like all generalizations, however, the foregoing one has its exceptions.

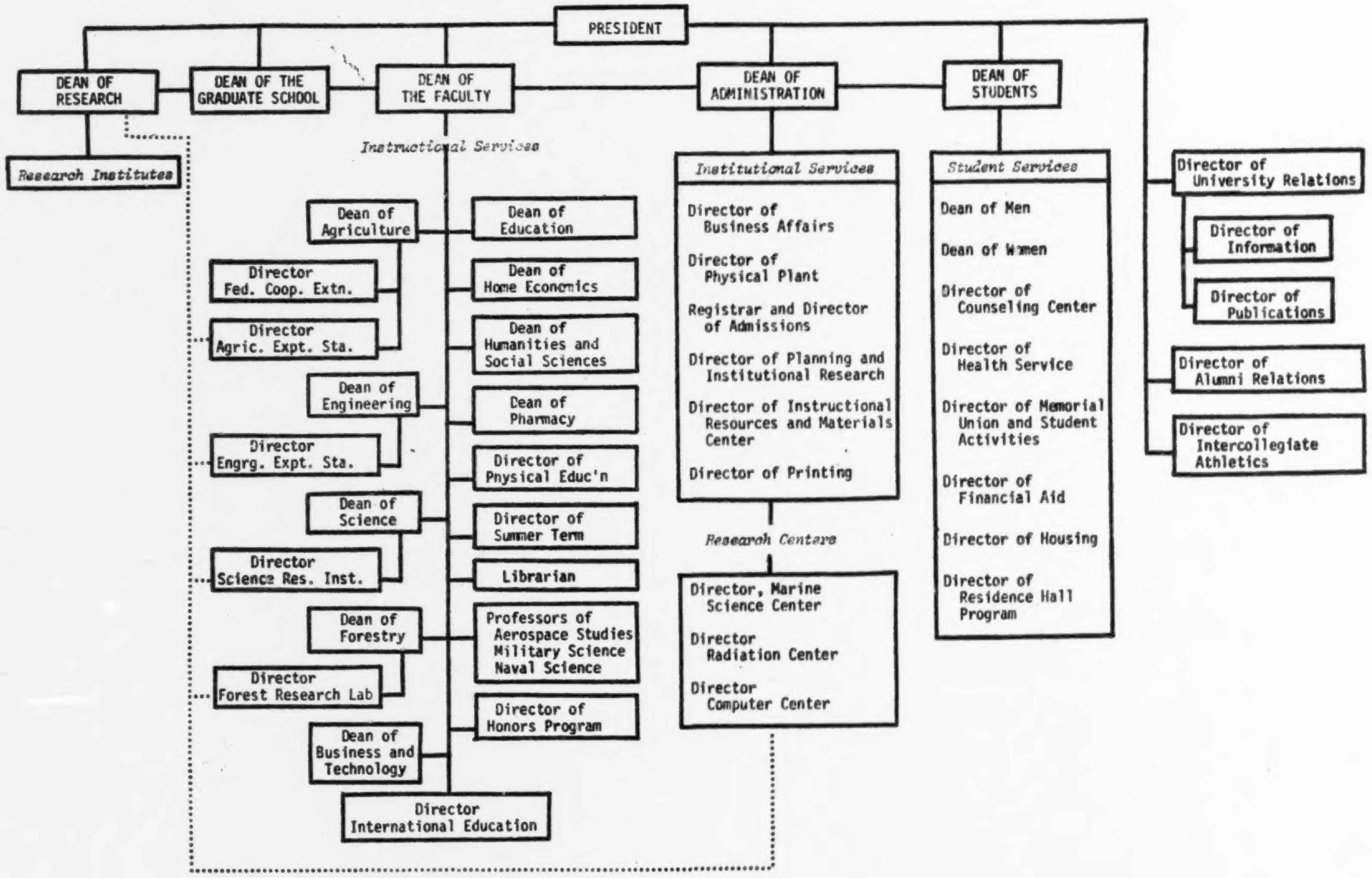
As institutions grow to large university status, it is inevitable that the president delegate increasing authority and added duties to other administrative officers, which in smaller institutions he would retain unto himself. As to the areas of administration which he retains for his direct and personal consideration and those he delegates, we refer to observations from Barnaby Keeney, long-time president of Brown University, and John J. Corson, distinguished professor of public administration at Princeton, whose comments are based upon a detailed study of governance in 15 selected institutions throughout the United States. Keeney observes that "the president himself must be responsible for whatever is going badly. If education is going badly, he must devote

---

[1] Robert M. Hutchins, Freedom, Education, and the Fund (New York, New York: Meridian Books, 1956), p. 168.

# OREGON STATE UNIVERSITY

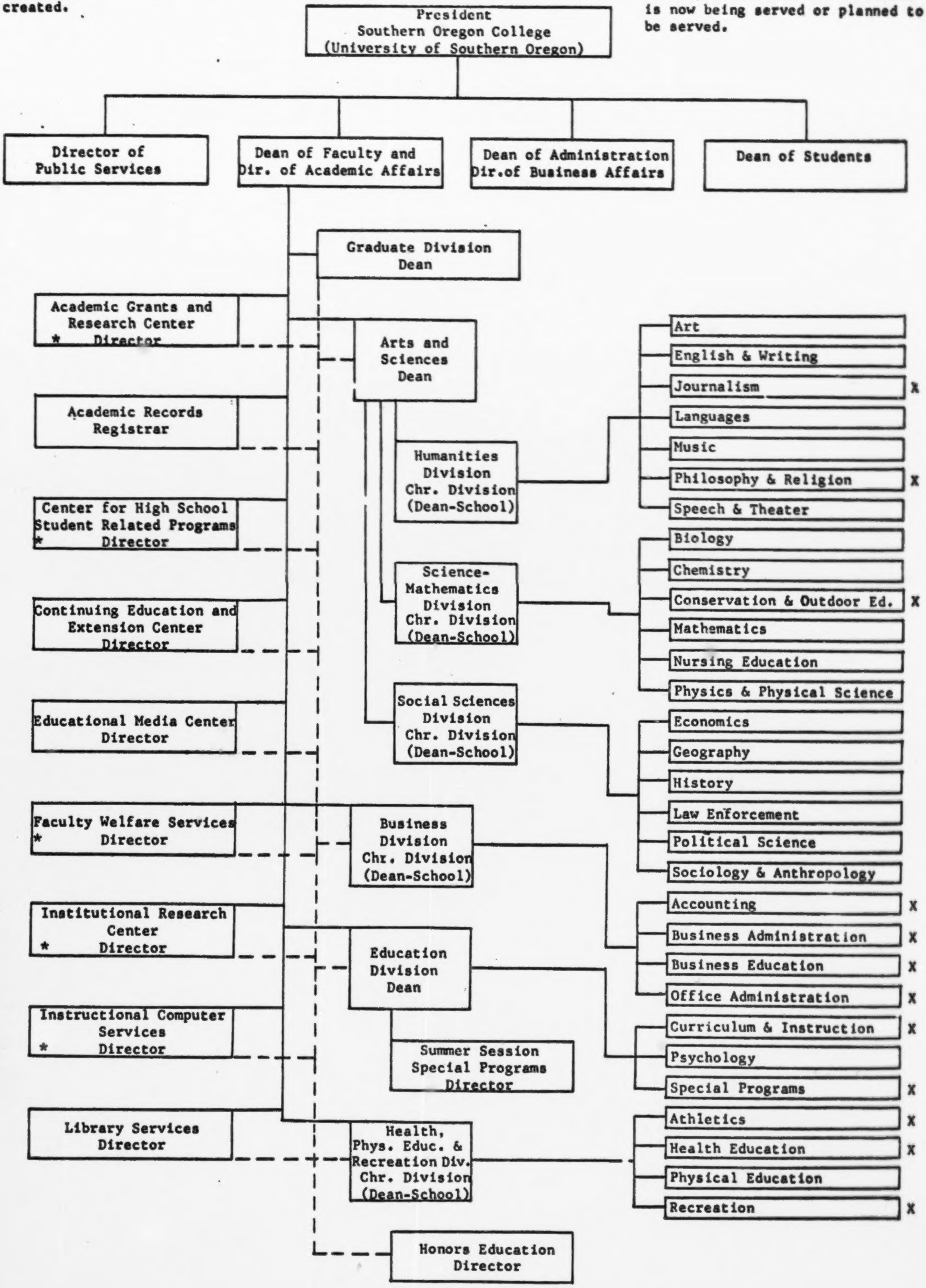
## Organizational Chart


PRESIDENT
DEAN OF RESEARCH
Research Institutes
DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
DEAN OF THE FACULTY
Instructional Services
Dean of Agriculture
Director Fed. Coop. Extn.
Director Agric. Expt. Sta.
Dean of Engineering
Director Engrg. Expt. Sta.
Dean of Science
Director Science Res. Inst.
Dean of Forestry
Director Forest Research Lab
Dean of Business and Technology
Director International Education
Dean of Education
Dean of Home Economics
Dean of Humanities and Social Sciences
Dean of Pharmacy
Director of Physical Educ'n
Director of Summer Term
Librarian
Professors of Aerospace Studies Military Science Naval Science
Director of Honors Program
DEAN OF ADMINISTRATION
Institutional Services
Director of Business Affairs
Director of Physical Plant
Registrar and Director of Admissions
Director of Planning and Institutional Research
Director of Instructional Resources and Materials Center
Director of Printing
Research Centers
Director, Marine Science Center
Director Radiation Center
Director Computer Center
DEAN OF STUDENTS
Student Services
Dean of Men
Dean of Women
Director of Counseling Center
Director of Health Service
Director of Memorial Union and Student Activities
Director of Financial Aid
Director of Housing
Director of Residence Hall Program
Director of University Relations
Director of Information
Director of Publications
Director of Alumni Relations
Director of Intercollegiate Athletics

SOUTHERN OREGON COLLEGE
ACADEMIC ORGANIZATION CHART

* Function exists and service is provided but specific office indicated has not yet been created.

X Departments or programs not now created but which are near future development. Function indicated is now being served or planned to be served.


President Southern Oregon College (University of Southern Oregon)
Director of Public Services
Dean of Faculty and Dir. of Academic Affairs
Dean of Administration Dir. of Business Affairs
Dean of Students
Graduate Division Dean
Academic Grants and Research Center * Director
Academic Records Registrar
Center for High School Student Related Programs * Director
Continuing Education and Extension Center Director
Educational Media Center Director
Faculty Welfare Services * Director
Institutional Research Center * Director
Instructional Computer Services * Director
Library Services Director
Arts and Sciences Dean
Humanities Division Chr. Division (Dean-School)
Science-Mathematics Division Chr. Division (Dean-School)
Social Sciences Division Chr. Division (Dean-School)
Business Division Chr. Division (Dean-School)
Education Division Dean
Summer Session Special Programs Director
Health, Phys. Educ. & Recreation Div. Chr. Division (Dean-School)
Honors Education Director
Art
English & Writing
Journalism X
Languages
Music
Philosophy & Religion X
Speech & Theater
Biology
Chemistry
Conservation & Outdoor Ed. X
Mathematics
Nursing Education
Physics & Physical Science
Economics
Geography
History
Law Enforcement
Political Science
Sociology & Anthropology
Accounting X
Business Administration X
Business Education X
Office Administration X
Curriculum & Instruction X
Psychology
Special Programs X
Athletics X
Health Education X
Physical Education
Recreation X

his whole time to education. If dining halls are going badly, he must concern himself primarily with them."[1]

Corson states that observation of the day-to-day functioning of typical college or university presidents suggests:

> . . . that as the institution grows in enrollment, and hence in faculty, in facilities, and in budget, the president is ejected from the areas of the institution's central concerns - the educational program, the faculty, and the students - by the demands that are made on his time by other activities.[2]

In support of the above observation, Corson cites the results of analyses of how the time of two presidents in major universities (one in a large state university, the other in a major, but smaller private institution) was reported as being spent as indicative of what a number of such analyses have shown. These presidents, Corson noted, were, on the average, devoting approximately:

> 40 percent of their time to financial matters: framing the budget, presenting it to the trustees and to the legislature, reviewing with advisers the management of invested endowments, and especially appealing to prospective donors.
>
> 20 percent to public and alumni relations: meeting with, and usually addressing, a variety of public, alumni, and parent groups, including state and national educational associations; writing for alumni publications and working with the alumni secretary; participating in service club or church activities or service on corporate boards of directors.
>
> 12 percent to problems of physical facilities: developing plans for needed classrooms, buildings, laboratories, dormitories, and other facilities with either legislative committees or the donors providing needed funds.
>
> 10 percent to general administration: dealing with university business officers, and meeting with board committees to consider such problems as the management of dormitories; the maintenance of grounds and buildings; the procurement of supplies; the treatment of clerical, custodial, and other nonacademic employees; or the problems of the university press.
>
> 18 percent (less than one-fifth) to educational matters: meeting with faculty representatives or otherwise working on matters of educational programing; meeting prospective new faculty members; selecting and promoting faculty members, department heads, and deans; meeting with student groups and student leaders and handling, with his staff, student problems, including those arising out of fraternities, and especially out of intercollegiate athletics.[3]

---

[1] Barnaby Keeney, "The Function of the President as Interpreted in the Memo," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XXX (November, 1959), p. 431.

[2] John J. Corson, Governance of Colleges and Universities (New York, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), p. 61.

[3] Ibid., pp. 59-60.

A further insight into the pressures upon the president's time is suggested by Hutchins in this wry comment:

> The strain on his [the president's] mind results not so much from the intellectual difficulty of his problems as from his inability to command the time, assuming the ability and the willingness, to think. A university administrator has at least five constituencies: the faculty, the trustees, the students, the alumni, and the public. He could profitably spend all his time with any one of the five. What he actually does, of course, is to spend just enough with each of the five to irritate the other four.[1]

*But whatever the pressures upon the president, effective support of curricular development and the encouragement and promotion of effective instruction within the institution is dependent upon his active interest and continuing support. His is the obligation to survey the whole curriculum and to endeavor to discover the interrelationships of its several parts which would have most relevance for the aims of the institution. For the curriculum is the means to the ends for which the institution exists.*

By their very nature, the schools and the departments within an institution tend to represent what one writer has referred to as "a loose federation of rival departments,"[2] and curriculum building, the "balancing of the claims of pressure groups."[3] The administrator must himself be continuously aware of curricular issues, that from this competitive climate may emerge a consistent, integrated curriculum, relevant to the ends the institution seeks to serve.

> He must then try to induce those to whose care the curriculum has been committed to face the problems it raises as persistently, as seriously and as impartially as possible. In this connection, too, the administrator must be a trouble maker; for every change in education is a change in the habits of some members of the faculty. Nevertheless, the administrator must insist on the participation of the faculty in the constant reconsideration of the means which it is using to attain the end of the university; for his duty is not merely to decide upon the classes of cases committed to his care, but also to see to it that the other members of the [academic] community do not become officeholders in relation to the categories committed to theirs.[4]

The decisive importance of the president's balanced view is expressed by Hutchins as follows:

> Such thinking as the administrator can do will derive its value, not so much from his extraordinary knowledge or intellectual capacity, as from his locus in the institution. Like the

---

[1] Hutchins, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

[2] Willard L. Thorp, "Probabilities and Possibilities," *Financing Higher Education, 1960-70* (New York, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 291.

[3] Lewis B. Mayhew, "Curricular Reform and Faculty Well-Being," *The Educational Record*, Vol. XLIV, No. 1 (January, 1963), p. 59.

[4] Hutchins, *op. cit.*, p. 176.

architect, his view encompasses the whole and the interrelationships of the parts. He is likely to take a more detached view of the whole and its parts than any of the staff. Though he will not have much time to think, he can devote the time he has to thinking as objectively as possible about the whole. He has the knowledge, the position, and the duty to do so.[1]

## Other Academic Officers

As institutions grow in size and complexity, it becomes increasingly necessary for the president to delegate duties and functions to others. It is in this circumstance that the positions of dean and department head have emerged and developed. In any institution of reasonable size, deans and department heads carry a significant share of the administrative responsibilities of the institution.

In a facetious vein Barzun refers to this expansion of academic officers as follows:

> American institutions dealing as they do with younger people, and furnishing far more numerous services, have to be run by a separate body of diversely specialized managers known collectively as the administration. The Director of Admissions admits, the Registrar registers, the Bursar inburses, and a galaxy of Deans decide. There is a Dean of Men, a Dean of Women, a Dean of Studies, and Freshman Deans in droves. In a large university, there are as many deans and executive heads as there are schools and departments. Their relations to one another are intricate and periodic; in fact, "galaxy" is too loose a term; it is a planetarium of deans with the President of the University as a central sun. One can see eclipses, inner systems, and oppositions. But usually more sympathy obtains among fellow administrators than between them and the teaching personnel. If it came to a pitched battle, I feel sure that the more compact executive troops, animated by a single purpose, besides being better fed and self-disciplined, could rout the more numerous but disorderly rabble that teaches.
>
> Not that it would be easy to find a clear-cut issue for war. The difference of views that exists is ill-defined and more permanent than deep-lying. Most deans are beloved of their faculty, especially when neither dean nor teacher is in his own seat of authority, and the good steady friction that shows the wheels are gripping doesn't come from a single cause.[2]

### The Deans

In a more serious vein, Corson[3] has identified six general categories of officers bearing the title of dean.

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[1] Ibid., p. 175.

[2] Jacques Barzun, Teacher in America (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1954), p. 158.

[3] Corson, op. cit., p. 73.

1. Those with responsibilities for the whole institution, titled dean of faculty, dean of administration, dean of the university, dean of academic affairs or provost.

   (At UO, dean of faculties, dean of administration; OSU, dean of the faculty, dean of administration; PSC, dean of faculty, dean of administration; EOC and OCE, deans of instruction, deans of administration; SOC, dean of faculty and assistant to the president /administration/.)

2. Deans of students, or dean of men and dean of women.

   Historically, these deanships came into being later than most other deanships and grew out of the need for an administrative official or officials to exercise general oversight of the increasingly complex student personnel problems.

3. Deans of arts and sciences.

   (At UO, dean of college of liberal arts; OSU, deans of schools of science, and humanities and social sciences; PSC, deans of divisions of science, arts and letters, and social science; SOC, dean of arts and sciences; EOC and OCE, deans of instruction.

4. Deans of professional schools.

   (UO has deans of schools of: architecture and allied arts; business administration; education; health, physical education, and recreation; law; librarianship; journalism; music. Deans of the medical and dental schools are located in Portland; OSU has deans of schools of agriculture, education, engineering, forestry, business and technology, home economics, and pharmacy. PSC has deans of schools of business administration, education, and social work. The regional schools have no professional schools.)

5. Deans of graduate studies.

   (UO, OSU, and PSC have graduate deans. The three regional schools do not because their graduate programs are limited.)

6. Deans of evening and extension division.

   (The administrator of the Division of Continuing Education in the Oregon State System of Higher Education has the title of Vice Chancellor.)

It will be observed that the deans listed in the first two categories above are deans having all-institution responsibilities. In this present discussion we are primarily concerned with: (1) the deans of faculty or faculties (or deans of instruction, as these officers are called at EOC and OCE), (2) the deans of the colleges, schools, or divisions of arts and sciences (liberal arts), and (3) the deans of the professional schools. For it is these deans that are in the best position to affect the quality of the teaching-learning situations in the institutions.

The Nature of the Dean's Role. Myron Wicke refers to the dean as "the man in the middle." This terminology, Wicke suggests, has both positive and negative connotations. Positively, the phrase represents precisely the dean's function - to be a potentially creative link between faculty and administration. Negatively, says Wicke, the term suggests a person who is a member of the "out" group so far as the faculty is concerned - since he has "joined" the administration - and equally of the "out" group to the president if he identifies himself too closely with the faculty.

In further characterizing the dean's position, Wicke paraphrases John Erskine to the effect that "A college dean is like a small boy walking on a high picket fence, thrilled but in constant danger of being impaled." Wicke continues:

> Nevertheless, once the dean moves out of the middle position, he is no longer useful. Deans are men in the middle by definition . . . .Once the dean finds it impossible to work with both president and faculty, he has outlived his usefulness. He is then in the middle only in a disaster sense.[1]

## Dean of Faculties

The role and function of the deans of faculties (deans of instruction at EOC and OCE) is determined by the responsibilities the president desires to allocate to his dean. As an extension of the president, the dean exists to serve the function assigned him by the president at whose pleasure he serves. And what the president allocates to the dean of faculties as function is likely to be affected by a number of factors.

- The president's own interests. All other things being equal, the president is likely to wish to maintain a role and function giving him opportunity to exercise a controlling hand in those aspects of the institution's operation in which he is most interested and/or from which he derives the most satisfaction from personal involvement. If the president's principal interests lie in curricular and faculty development, he is likely to retain a close and continuing relationship with the administration of these areas. If, on the other hand, the president finds the business and finance, public relations, and physical plant planning of greater interest, he is likely to give major attention to these, leaving to a competent dean of faculties major staff responsibility in the academic and faculty personnel areas.

- The pressures of time. Whatever the president's predilections, the press of time or the pressure of events may deny him any effective choice as to what he must himself do and what he will allocate to his dean of faculties. By the time the president has given the necessary time to the "inevitable and urgent" matters, or to the matters, in the words of Barnaby Keeney, that are going "badly," he may well find that there is little or no time to give to administrative areas where he would, had he a choice, prefer to spend his time. More often than not, it is these pressures that dictate the president's leaving to the dean of faculties major responsibilities in the fields of academic planning and faculty personnel development.

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[1] Myron Wicke, "Deans: 'Men in the Middle,'" The Study of Academic Administration (Boulder, Colorado: WICHE, 1963), pp. 58-59.

- The size of the institution. In smaller institutions, the president is less likely to find himself the victim of the tyranny of time, and therefore more able to structure his activities in accordance with his interests. Under such circumstances, it is likely that the president will retain unto himself major responsibilities in the academic planning and faculty development areas, sharing these interests with the dean of faculties.

Illustrative of the duties delegated to deans of faculties is the following statement from the University of Oregon administrative manual.

> Section 302. Office of the Dean of Faculties
>
> The Office of the Dean of Faculties was created by the President on January 1, 1962. Units under the jurisdiction of the Office currently include: Division of Broadcast Services; the Office of Assistant to the Dean of Faculties (Faculty Personnel); and the Office of Continuing Education.
>
> a. The Dean of Faculties
>
> 1. The Dean of Faculties serves under the general direction and supervision of the President as his principal assistant for academic affairs and faculty matters. He aids the president in providing leadership to the faculty and its regularly constituted groups in the consideration and approval of educational objectives and policies. He administers the approved objectives, policies, plans, and programs which govern the academic affairs of the University and assumes specific supervisory tasks at the direction of the President.
>
> 2. The Dean of Faculties also performs defined functions in the following areas:
>
>    a. Reviews with the President the proposals and recommendations of duly constituted organizations of the faculty, such as the Faculty Advisory Council and the Faculty Committee on Curriculum.
>
>    b. Cooperates with the Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, the deans of the professional schools, and the Librarian in the formulation of the University's academic budget.
>
>    c. Formulates and recommends, together with the appropriate groups of the faculty, for approval, policies and standards to govern the conduct of instruction and research in the University.

d. Supervises the procedures for recruitment and appointment of new officers of instruction for the faculty of the University.

e. Develops and recommends, with the assistance of the deans and duly constituted groups of the faculty, policies, principles, and practices governing the administration of faculty personnel, within the framework of general policies of the State Board of Higher Education.

f. Reviews the planning and development of curricula and academic requirements and standards, and makes recommendations to facilitate improvement in the quality of educational programs.

g. Oversees the development of policies and standards governing the preparation and publication of scientific and scholarly publications of the University.

h. In cooperation with the academic deans and the Librarian, prepares recommendations concerning the development and strengthening of the University resources, including those of the Library.

i. Serves as a member of the University Budget Committee.

## Deans of Liberal Arts

Encompassed within this general title are: the dean of the college of liberal arts at the University of Oregon, the deans of the schools of science, and of humanities and social sciences at Oregon State University, the three deans of the divisions of science, arts and letters, and social science at PSC, and the dean of arts and sciences at SOC. At OCE and EOC, the deans of instruction fulfill a function not dissimilar from that of the deans of liberal arts at the other institutions.

Though the responsibilities discharged by the foregoing deans at the several institutions may vary some in detail, in general it may be said that these officers generally have no responsibility for student personnel problems (these are the responsibility of the dean of students and/or dean of men and dean of women), some responsibility for budgeting and finance or building planning as relates to the colleges or schools over which they preside, but major responsibilities for the oversight of curricular planning, selection and promotion of faculty members, development of effective instructional programs, and similar academic and faculty personnel responsibilities.

Illustrative of the responsibilities of the deans of liberal arts is the following excerpt from the University of Oregon administrative manual.

> Section 311. The Academic Deans
>
> a. Definition. The term academic deans includes the Dean of Faculties, the Dean of the Graduate School and the deans of the

College of Liberal Arts and of the Professional Schools on the Eugene campus of the University. Academic deans are considered Officers of Instruction - whether or not they are teaching.

b. Functions. Academic deans serve under the general supervision of the President and work in close cooperation with the Dean of Faculties. They advise and assist both officers and make recommendations to them concerning their areas. The academic deans have general supervisor responsibilities for the departments or units under their jurisdiction including: research and instruction; collection and coordination of unified budgetary statements; recommendation of appointments, promotions, salaries, and leaves for the academic staff; and nomination of students and faculty members for scholarships and fellowships.

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Section 400. The College of Liberal Arts

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b. General Functions of the College of Liberal Arts. Students in the College of Liberal Arts receive a general education in the social sciences, the sciences, and humanities prior to attaining the specialization which goes with becoming a professional person or specialist in a particular area or discipline, or as background for a broad liberal education.

c. Dean of the College of Liberal Arts. In addition to the general administrative duties discussed in section 311, the Dean of the College of Liberal Arts has administrative responsibility for the Office of Academic Advising, the Bureau of Municipal Research and Service, the Honors College, the Museum of Natural History, and certain interdisciplinary study committees and preparatory programs.

The dean of the liberal arts works through department heads under his jurisdiction (e.g., department of mathematics, department of history, etc.) on (1) curricular and instructional affairs, and (2) faculty personnel matters.

Proposals relating to curricular change (i.e., curricular reorganization, course additions, course deletions) within specific departments (e.g., history, political science, sociology, etc.) are usually generated within the departments, sometimes with stimulation from the dean, though often without. These departmental curricular proposals are reviewed by the dean with a view to determining which should receive support and be forwarded with the dean's recommendation for approval to the all-institutional curricular bodies for further review. In his consideration of these departmental curricular proposals, the dean normally has the benefit of the views of the total faculty under his jurisdiction, distilled from faculty discussion of the various proposals at a formal faculty meeting. Or, he may in lieu thereof, or in addition thereto, have the benefit of recommendations of a faculty committee broadly representative of the faculty under his jurisdiction.

The dean may play a very significant role in the furthering of particular curricular developments. For example, he may be the stimulus that generates a review of the general education functions served by the several departments under his jurisdiction. Or, he may be the driving force behind the development of interdepartmental courses serving the similar needs of two or more departments, to replace separate departmental courses which represent an unnecessary proliferation of courses. Thus, for example, a basic foundation course for the behavioral sciences may be developed to replace two or three separate departmental courses. Or a basic course in research techniques may be developed to serve the needs of all of the departments under the dean's jurisdiction, replacing several such courses in separate departments.

In the field of faculty personnel, the ultimate aim of the dean is to encourage his department heads to select the strongest possible candidates for appointment, and to recommend compensation and promotion of faculty in accordance with their merits. To this end, the dean customarily plays an important role in the faculty selection process, and in the application of compensation and promotion policies to the members of the faculty over which he presides. Corson's observation, based upon a study of some 15 institutions, was that the dean is limited in his ability effectively to perform this function,

> . . . by the lack of effective method for appraising the individual teacher's performance. Occasional reports from students, from colleagues, or from the registrar and evidence on the individual's social acceptability are hardly reliable measures on which the deans can base their judgments.[1]

"Yet," said Corson, his study of the situation in the institutions whose operations he analyzed, revealed "little evidence that many deans are striving to establish better measures."[2]

> . . . Rather the deans observed in the course of this study, with notable exceptions, cling to the desire "to teach at least one course," little realizing the nature of added duties they have assumed as academic administrators. In addition, their time is consumed by the counseling of students and by a mass of routine administrative action. They have little time for the broad reading that would enable them to counsel intelligently the representatives of the many departments over whom they preside, stimulate their developments, and participate effectively in educational programing with others on the faculty.[3]

In an interesting aside, Corson quotes Chancellor Lawrence A. Kimpton of the University of Chicago to the effect that ". . . a good dean is a very pleasant thing to have around, but he shares the weakness of the head of the institution - he rarely knows what is going on." Kimpton attributes this weakness to the fact that the dean is too little "directly confronted by the faculty." Corson acknowledges this as one source of the weakness of some of the deans he observed, but adds that an additional source of weakness as he observed it was "the /dean's/ tendency to devote his time to the wrong things."[4]

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[1] Corson, op. cit., pp. 77-78.
[2] Ibid., p. 78.
[3] Ibid., p. 78.
[4] Ibid., p. 78.

Corson's comments are not quoted here to imply that the deans of liberal arts in state system institutions are subject to the limitations Corson has identified. Corson acknowledges that some of the deans he observed were, in fact, measuring up fully to their opportunities for leadership. We do not suggest that our deans are not.

Corson's observation is not unlike Hutchins' who wrote of the dilemma facing administrators in higher education as follows:

> The administrator who wants to administer will find that he cannot put his time to the best advantage. On the one side are those things which are inevitable and urgent. On the other are those things which are important. The administrator should be devoting himself to those things which are important. But by definition he must devote himself to those things which are inevitable and urgent. The question whether an assistant professor should have an increase in salary of $250 is not important, at least in an institution which has a deficit of one million dollars, which every well-regulated university should have. A deficit of $1,000,250 does not differ significantly from one of $1,000,000. But this question must be settled, while more important questions are postponed, because an offer from another university must be accepted or declined, or because the budget must go to the trustees at a certain time. And it must be passed upon by the administrator ultimately responsible, because, though $250 is not important, the quality of the staff is.[1]

## Deans of the Professional Schools

The role and functions of the deans of professional schools (e.g., architecture and allied arts, agriculture, business administration, education, forestry, engineering, law, dentistry, medicine, pharmacy) are so well described by Corson, with such an economy of words, that without apologies we content ourselves with an extended quotation therefrom.

> The professional school dean has at the same time a simpler, more complex, and different task than does the dean of the college of arts and sciences in the same institution.
>
> His role is simpler in that he usually has to deal with a smaller faculty. He can often claim a more comprehensive understanding of the several disciplines represented in the faculty. Moreover, the school over which he presides has a greater unity of purpose than the undergraduate college that is simultaneously offering a "broad general education;" preparation for law, for medicine, and for various graduate school specialties; training for teaching; and courses in business techniques. With smaller faculties, and more closely knit organizations, the dean of the professional school (except in the very largest schools) functions simultaneously as dean and department head.

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[1] Hutchins, op. cit., p. 174.

When departments do exist in professional schools, these units usually lack some of the diversity and high degrees of specialization common to the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. Professional deans can make (or at the least participate in) decisions affecting most of their disciplines with far greater insights than their liberal arts counterparts. Many professional schools have been organized more recently so that the headship retains much of the status and many of the prerogatives of departmental chairmen. Most professional school faculty members hold the same professional allegiances (as in the areas of law, engineering, medicine, pharmacy, forestry, etc.). This contributes to the relatively close-knit relationship that enables the dean to exercise a greater leadership in educational programing, faculty selection, and budgeting.

His role is made more complex and difficult by a variety of demands which arise from outside commitments. Consulting obligations (which may be the analogue of library research for the arts and sciences teacher); efforts to raise funds for buildings, for faculty salaries, and for scholarships; contacts with prospective employers to facilitate student placement; contacts with professional groups, e.g., the bar association or the medical society; and similar responsibilities fall upon professional deans - in contrast to their liberal arts colleagues.[1]

## Department Heads

Departments are the organizational sub-units within professional schools or the school of arts and sciences (liberal arts) of an institution which permit the organization of faculty into working units consisting of professors of similar subject matter interests.

For instance, in the school of business administration, the departments might be: accounting, finance, marketing, production, personnel management; or in architecture: architecture, interior architecture, landscape architecture, urban planning. Generally, in the smaller professional schools no departments are established.

The liberal arts curriculum seems naturally to divide itself into divisions which are broad in scope (e.g., humanities, social science, science), and which are divisible into subject matter departments (e.g., English, foreign language, philosophy, religion, art, music, etc., in the humanities; anthropology, sociology, political science, history, economics, etc., in the social sciences; biology, bacteriology, geology, physics, chemistry, etc., in the sciences).

It is quite traditional, particularly within large institutions, for the college or school of liberal arts to be divided into departments (e.g., English, foreign language, history, philosophy, economics), each department presided over by a department head either appointed by the dean of the college or school, with or without the advice of the faculty of the department, or elected by the department faculty members themselves. This organizational structure characterizes the two universities (UO, OSU), PSC, and increasingly SOC. OCE and EOC are organized primarily on a divisional basis (i.e., divisions of science-mathematics, social science, humanities).

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[1] Corson, op. cit., pp. 80-81.

The department is the basic planning and administrative unit in the college or school of liberal arts. Here originate recommendations relating to faculty appointments, faculty salary levels and salary increments for individual faculty members, faculty promotions, leaves for faculty. It is at this level that originate recommendations, and sometimes decisions on such matters as teaching load, and assignment of courses. It is here that the budget, in its most basic form, has its origins, and where much of the basic planning is done relating to the character of the physical facilities required for departmental operation. Here originate proposals for curricular change. And of supreme importance to this report, the department is a principal source to which we must look for effective means of improving the teaching and learning situation in our institutions. And it is here that all such proposals must ultimately be tested.

The role of the department head is not an easy one. He, as much as the dean, is a "man in the middle." For he must, on the one hand, be of and for the faculty, and, on the other, he is, in fact, a basic and most important unit in the "administration." For many faculty members, the department head is the only, or at least the most common, contact with the "administration" of the institution. The successful department head must somehow contrive to remain, in the minds of his colleagues in the department, one of them, while discharging his responsibilities as an administrator to the satisfaction of his dean. It is no easy task. For the time required for the department head's administrative duties necessarily must be taken from what would otherwise be his teaching and/or research time. Hence he has less time to pursue those goals which give status in an academic discipline. For these reasons it is not uncommon for the department headship to change frequently as one after another of the departmental faculty members undertakes the role for a period and then relinquishes it in order to give more time to his academic pursuits.

There is in the department usually a substantial element of freedom and flexibility. Within a single institution, departments vary in such matters as faculty load, amount of departmental resources allocated to undergraduate teaching, extent to which senior professors are involved in lower division (freshmen, sophomore) teaching, extent to which teaching assistants are used in undergraduate teaching, frequency of class meetings, procedures for departmental approval of proposed curricular changes, and like matters. And this element of flexibility extends to the individual faculty member within the department. For within the classroom, the faculty member both rules and reigns. For except as such factors as class size are at play, the faculty member controls the teaching-learning situation within his classroom. It is he who ultimately decides what innovations, if any, there shall be in his classroom.

## Some Aspects of the Physiology of College and University Administration

### Formal and Informal Organization

The hierarchical authority structure briefly outlined in the preceding pages is deceptively simple and straightforward in appearance. It pictures a rather tidy line and staff structure, with a neat division of staff responsibilities among staff officers, each operating within clearly defined limits. This is the formal structure.

But to see the academic administrative structure of colleges and universities in this light alone is to ignore the many effective but informal ways in which administrative officers work together. It ignores the character and the role of the faculty, and it overlooks the increasing influence of students, and even of alumni. In short, it overlooks the informal organization, which is as important to the administration of colleges and universities as it is to the administration of non-educational agencies.

### Instruction-Scholarship Primary Function

To the layman who finds a comforting familiarity in the seemingly bureaucratic administrative structure earlier outlined, it may come as a surprise to discover that faculties not uncommonly look upon administrators in the institution not as masters but as servants.

This is in keeping with the fundamental proposition that instruction, and related research, are the primary functions of the institution; that the faculty is by definition and by common consent the principal custodian of these functions. Hence, faculties hold, all other employees of the college or university who are not directly involved in teaching and related research are, by definition, ancillary personnel - that is, personnel whose function is important only in that it makes possible the work of the teacher-scholar. In this view, ancillary personnel include, therefore: department heads (to the extent they are not also teachers), academic deans, deans of professional schools, those who administer student personnel matters (deans of students, deans of men and women), those who administer the finance and business affairs (business managers, comptrollers), and those who administer building planning, construction and maintenance affairs (directors of physical plant planning and building maintenance).

### Teachers' Role Important in Academic Administration

Because of their central role in the teaching function, and their expertise and prestige in the academic world, faculties demand and are usually accorded an important role in the administration of academic affairs in the institution. Their wisdom in academic affairs is generally acknowledged and the wise administrator seeks to take full advantage of the high order of intelligence his faculty represents.

## Concepts of Collegiality and Community in Administration of Higher Education

Some students of college administration see the increasingly important role of faculties in academic administration as expressive of a trend away from bureaucratic organization in higher education in recognition of the validity of the concepts of collegiality and community. Collegial or community administration would substitute "group authority for monocratic authority," as Anderson puts it. Speaking further of the concept of "collegiality," Anderson says:

> Collegiality seems to be for Weber, as mentioned earlier, a device for limiting the authority of a monocratic "chief." However, in terms of Parsons' comment, just quoted, collegiality would seem to imply much more. There is at the heart of the organization "a company of equals." There is not present a "rigid hierarchy of status."[1]

Of the concept of "community" Anderson says:

> Basically, the organizational concept which is antithetical to the bureaucratic and which is commonly deemed applicable to colleges and universities is that of community. This concept is not as easily defined or described as "organization" as is that of bureaucracy.
>
> Community seems to preclude extensive or complex hierarchical structure. The roles of members are seldom articulated, although they may be well defined, and special competence which might confer authority on any member is only indirectly acknowledged. Leadership in community organization is often diffused and transient.
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> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> Put in a different way, community is built on consensus. Members of the organization through conferral and discussion arrive at decisions at levels of both policy and operations. However, after consensus the individual members of the communities would appear to have operational autonomy although they must conform to community mores.[2]

Anderson concludes his discussion of collegiality and community by asserting that although he considers the prevailing basic organizational pattern of institutions of higher education to be bureaucratic, there are forces at play in higher education which may lead colleges and universities to modify their traditionally bureaucratic structure, so as to become "communities" in the sense described above.

But some other observers of academic administration suggest that both the bureaucratic and collegial features of administration are by way of becoming

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[1] G. Lester Anderson, "The Organizational Character of American Colleges and Universities," The Study of Academic Administration, (Boulder, Colorado: WICHE, 1963), p. 11.

[2] Ibid., p. 14.

subsidiary and are giving way to professional authority represented by the influence of segmented faculties in which faculty specialization is such that it bestows upon individual faculty members a personal authority not hitherto known.

Clark suggests that the issues in institutions of higher education may not be unlike those in industry in which scientists are employed. In these industrial firms, Clark says:

> . . . professional authority and bureaucratic authority are both necessary, for each performs an essential function: professional authority protects the exercise of the special expertise of the technologist, allowing his judgment to be pre-eminent in many matters. Bureaucratic authority functions to provide coordination of the work of the technologists with the other major elements of the firm. Bureaucratic direction is not capable of providing certain expert judgments; professional direction is not capable of providing the over-all coordination.[1]

It should be noted that the faculty has numerous ways of frustrating the administration which refuses them the role they seek in academic decision-making. They can, for example: depart (the job market being what it is, the abler faculty members have little difficulty in moving, facing the administration with the need to recruit staff of equal competence or see the quality of staff decline), refuse cooperation (in which case the administration may be powerless to attain its goals), strike (no administrator could long endure a major faculty strike).

Students, likewise, have ways of making their voices heard. And as we shall note in a later section of this report, they are speaking in increasingly strident voices of their "rights" of equality in the deliberations of faculty and administration on matters affecting the college or university. We have just had a foretaste of this student militancy at UO, and a major American university (Columbia University) has just now (early May 1968) determined to leave to individual faculty members in its undergraduate college the decision whether to continue the instructional program to the end of the academic year in the face of an almost intolerable student militancy, or to discontinue the program now.

## A Basic Question

The academic community faces a difficult dilemma: It must find an effective way of enforcing organizational discipline in the interests of attaining institutional goals. At the same time, it must foster the independence and freedom of its members, or fail in the purposes for which colleges and universities were created. How to accomplish the first without an unwise or fatal infringement upon the second is the dilemma.

That this dilemma is not unique to educational institutions, nor to contemporary times is suggested by the rhetorical question Lincoln put to the Congress in July 1861, when he asked: "Must a government be too strong for the liberties of its own people, or too weak to maintain its own existence?"

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[1] Burton R. Clark, "Faculty Organization and Authority," The Study of Academic Administration (Boulder, Colorado: WICHE, 1963), p. 45.

## The Faculty

An understanding of the faculty and its relationship to curricular and instructional improvement requires that the faculty member be seen in the several contexts within which he moves as a member of the academic community. For if instructional improvement is to occur, it must come through the cooperation and active support of the individual faculty member.

And since some aspects of a curricular and instructional improvement program are dependent upon the approbation and good will, not to say support, of faculty groups, we review briefly the character of the faculty groups with which the individual faculty member is associated by reason of his employment.

### The Individual Faculty Member

- Someone has facetiously characterized the college professor as "one who thinks otherwise." He tends to be independent in judgment and outspoken in his views.
- He prizes "academic freedom," which is a shorthand way of saying that he values: (1) the freedom that is his in research to follow where the truth leads and to publish his results, "subject to the adequate performance of his other academic duties," and (2) freedom in the classroom to discuss his subject without fear of dismissal should he "criticize or advocate changes in accepted theories or widely held beliefs."
- He is eligible for indefinite tenure, which protects him against dismissal for arbitrary or capricious reasons. Academic freedom and indefinite tenure have undeniable personal advantages for the professor, but they are supported and defended because of their advantages to society. For as Byse and Joughin have observed, academic freedom and tenure exist "in order that society may have the benefit of honest judgment and independent criticism which otherwise might be withheld because of fear of offending a dominant social group or transient social attitude."[1]

  Unfortunately, indefinite tenure sometimes protects professors who have become complacent and unproductive. This unworthy use of indefinite tenure can be minimized in extent only when there is operative within the institution a means of assessing the continuing productivity of faculty members, and a plan for stimulating faculty improvement.

  Institutional policies on indefinite tenure and academic freedom both serve to restrict the institution's control over faculty members.

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[1] Clark Byse and Louis Joughin, Tenure in American Higher Education: Plans, Practices and the Law (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1959), pp. 71-76.

- He regards his classroom as his castle. He tends to view with suspicion proposals which would result in visitations to his classroom by his department head, dean, or some other agent of the administration. Such visits, except they be made at his express invitation, are considered to be out of keeping with his professional status. That this may be an unwarranted assumption makes it no less real as a factor to be reckoned with in plans for the improvement of teaching.

- He is a specialist among specialists (at least in the larger institutions). The intense specialization that characterizes some academic fields, particularly in large departments, results in the development of expertise in individual faculty members in specialized fields that is not really susceptible of evaluation by other than those who are competent in the same field of specialization. In a department segmented by high specialization among professors, a professor may feel that he has much more in common with colleagues in the same specialty on other campuses than he does with members of his own department who have specialties different from his own.

- He has a commitment to the subject matter or discipline in which his competency lies - a commitment which often overrides his commitment to the institution in which he is employed. He tends, therefore, to judge institutional matters in terms of their possible or likely impact upon the status or health of his particular subject matter field or discipline. He is anxious that his subject matter area or discipline be accorded at least equal status with any other subject matter area or discipline in the institution - status measured in terms of the academic or professional degrees available at the institution in the given field in question, the level of financial support, and the physical facilities provided.

- He has acquired a personal "authority" that he formerly did not have, or did not have to the same extent. That "authority" stems from three conditions, identified by a sociologist[1] as including: (1) Expertise acquired by many faculty members in an era of increasing specialization. So specialized have some faculty members become that save for those in the same specialty, none of their colleagues, even in the same department, can evaluate the professor or the quality of his research. (2) Capacity of the professor to secure funding from outside sources (i.e., federal government, private foundation), which influences his personal authority in the institution. As Clark has put it, in the form of a principle: "A direct relation of faculty members to external sources of support affects the distribution of influence within the campus, redistributing influence from those who do not have such contacts to those who do, and moving power from the faculty as a whole and as smaller collectivities to individual professors."[2] (3) Competitiveness of the job market, which makes the professor increasingly less dependent upon the institution for employment. He is, therefore, in a better bargaining position than he has ever been.

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[1] Clark, op. cit., pp. 47-49.
[2] Ibid., p. 49.

- Like people in all walks of life, he finds comfort in the familiar - in the professor's case it is the familiar in the teaching-learning situation. Since "every change in education is a change in the habits of some member of the faculty,"[1] proposals for change in the teaching-learning sector emanating from sources other than the faculty member himself, may appear to emanate from a troublemaker. Though Corson's analysis may seem harsh, he commented that:

  > One of the deadliest hazards to higher education is the resistance of faculties to change in subject matter and in method. This tendency is illustrated, in the institutions studied, by the disapproval of proposals (from fellow faculty members, a dean or a president) for the establishment of new or the alteration of existing courses, the introduction of an interdisciplinary seminar for first- and second-year students, the changing of the basis for evaluating applications for admissions, the changing of teaching methods, and frequently, the placing of greater emphasis on general education.[2]

- Security provided by indefinite tenure on the one hand and by adequate salary and nonsalary benefits on the other, though important to the peace of mind of the professor, are not his total measure of security. Teachers are principally occupied with the life of the mind. Their principal satisfactions derive from living under conditions offering the fullest freedom to promote effective development of the mind - their own and that of their students. Hence they are concerned with assuring themselves the conditions of work necessary to their effectiveness as teachers-scholars:

  - adequate library facilities
  - stimulating and provocative colleagues with whom to interact
  - an institutional tradition giving first rank to instructional and scholarly activities
  - an adequate number of students with interests and propensities for effective work in the area of the staff member's principal interest
  - a schedule of work that does not preclude performance of high standard
  - an administrative relationship which gives appropriate recognition to the importance of the teacher-scholar in the institution's operation
  - protection in his work from unwarranted and debilitating interference from forces and influences seeking special privilege

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[1] Hutchins, op. cit., p. 176.

[2] Corson, op. cit., pp. 103-104.

- personnel policies which provide the teacher with opportunity for leaves and for travel to professional meetings, permitting him to renew himself through study and other activities
- adequate laboratory and classroom facilities, and adequate equipment

- Although immersed in the life of the mind, he is, in his material needs and wants, not different from other professional people. He is concerned with sharing in the material abundance of our economy, with maintaining a reasonable standard of living, with providing for himself and family a sense of economic security.

  Psychic income - the satisfaction derived from work well done - is not for teachers more of a substitute for economic income than it is for others. For as Ruml and Tickton have observed, satisfaction from work well done is not greater for teachers than for men and women in other occupations in which the talents and interests of the worker are matched with his job. In the words of Ruml and Tickton: "Work well done . . . by men and women in all occupations - has a value that goes beyond and is incommensurate with the dollars and cents received in pay. In this the teacher is no favored exception."[1]

## Faculty Groupings in Colleges and Universities

Faculty authority is usually exercised through groups rather than through the individual faculty member. The faculty member finds himself a constituent part of several different, but overlapping faculty groups, each of which tends to be dependent upon faculty committees (standing or *ad hoc*) for the accomplishment of its work. Faculties frequently operate, too, through representative bodies, usually referred to as faculty senates. Together, faculty committees and faculty senates assist the faculty in the formulation of policies (a legislative function), and in some instances, the administration of policy (executive function). Characteristically, faculties operate through group authority rather than individual authority.

We present below, in ascending order of size, the faculty groupings of which the individual faculty member is a part.

- The departmental faculty. In large institutions, the departmental faculty group is the one in which the individual faculty member takes the greatest interest and in which he participates most actively. This is so for a number of reasons:
  - In this group he is associated with other professors of the same or similar subject matter interests, for that is the basis upon which departments are established. Consequently members of a department have more in common with each other than they do with faculty members from other departments and schools in the institution.

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[1] Beardsley Ruml and Sidney G. Tickton, *Teaching Salaries Then and Now* (New York, New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1955), p. 15.

- It is within the department that decisions are made on individual class assignments, class schedules, faculty load (within basic policies established for the school within which the department is situated), and such matters, and from which emanate such important basic recommendations as those dealing with salaries, promotion, and tenure.

- The departmental faculty grouping is the smallest grouping to which the individual belongs by virtue of his employment in the institution. Usually, it is small enough to encourage participation by staff members.

Departmental or divisional faculty groupings are also the source of greatest faculty activity in smaller institutions, although the all-institution faculty is often small enough in small institutions that individual participation in faculty activities is not unduly inhibited.

- The school or college faculty. In the larger institutions, as we have earlier noted, departments are grouped for administrative purposes within schools or colleges (i.e., professional schools such as business administration, education, architecture, law, agriculture; schools of liberal arts or arts and sciences). The school or college faculty then comprises the faculty members from each of the departments it encompasses. It is at this level that the faculty considers matters of interest and significance to the entire school or college. For instance, school policies may be hammered out by the all-school faculty on such matters as faculty load, scheduling policies to govern the school, degree requirement proposals for consideration of the all-institution faculty. Or, it is common for the all-school faculty to consider in open meetings the proposed curricular changes (e.g., program or course additions or deletions) proposed by each of the departmental faculties within the school or college.

- All-institution faculty. The all-institution faculty encompasses the faculty members from throughout the entire university. In very large institutions, all-institution faculty meetings are never held, or if they are, they are held infrequently and attended by a miniscule fraction of the faculty.

  The all-institution faculty has responsibility for setting faculty policy in those areas in which faculties customarily exercise an important influence in decision making, as we shall note hereinafter.

  All-institution faculties tend to operate through committees, some appointed by the president, some by the faculty. Typical of such faculty committees are committees on: academic requirements, advising, assembly and university lectures, curriculum intercollegiate athletics, library, publications, student conduct, scholastic deficiency, personnel welfare, scholarships and financial aid, teacher education, campus development, faculty senate.

## Areas of Faculty Responsibility

Traditionally in American higher education faculties have played a significant role in matters relating to academic and personnel affairs in the institutions of higher education. Their right to be consulted and to make decisions on educational issues has long been claimed by faculties, and generally, that claim has been acknowledged.

The widespread acceptance of this view of the faculty's role is seen in the joint publication Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities, issued in 1966 by associations representative of: (1) college and university professors (American Association of University Professors), (2) college and university administrators (American Council on Education), and (3) college and university governing boards (Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges). Speaking of the faculty, the report says:

> The faculty has primary responsibility for such fundamental areas as curriculum, subject matter and methods of instruction, research, faculty status, and those aspects of student life which relate to the educational process. On these matters, the power of review or final decision lodged in the governing board or delegated by it to the president should be exercised adversely only in exceptional circumstances, and for reasons communicated to the faculty. It is desirable that the faculty should, following such communication, have opportunity for further consideration and further transmittal of its views to the president or board. Budgets, manpower limitations, the time element and the policies of other groups, bodies and agencies having jurisdiction over the institution may set limits to realization of faculty advice.
>
> The faculty sets the requirements for the degrees offered in course, determines when the requirements have been met, and authorizes the president and board to grant the degrees thus achieved.
>
> Faculty status and related matters are primarily a faculty responsibility; this area includes appointments, reappointments, decisions not to reappoint, promotions, the granting of tenure, and dismissal. The primary responsibility of the faculty for such matters is based upon the fact that its judgment is central to general educational policy. Furthermore, scholars in a particular field or activity have the chief competence for judging the work of their colleagues; in such competence it is implicit that responsibility exists for both adverse and favorable judgments. Likewise there is the more general competence of experienced faculty personnel committees having a broader charge. Determinations in these matters should first be by faculty action through established procedures, reviewed by the chief academic officers with the concurrence of the board. The governing board and the president should, on questions of faculty status, as in other matters where the faculty has primary responsibility, concur with the faculty judgment except in rare instances and for compelling reasons which should be stated in detail.
>
> The faculty should actively participate in the determination of policies and procedures governing salary increases.

The chairman or head of a department, who serves as the chief representative of his department within an institution, should be selected either by departmental election or by appointment following consultation with members of the department and of related departments; appointments should normally be in conformity with department members' judgment. The chairman or department head should not have tenure in his office; his tenure as a faculty member is a matter of separate right. He should serve for a stated term but without prejudice to re-election or to reappointment by procedures which involve appropriate faculty consultation. Board, administration, and faculty should all bear in mind that the department chairman has a special obligation to build a department strong in scholarship and teaching capacity.

Agencies for faculty participation in the government of the college or university should be established at each level where faculty responsibility is present. An agency should exist for the presentation of the views of the whole faculty. The structure and procedures for faculty participation should be designed, approved and established by joint action of the components of the institution. Faculty representatives should be selected by the faculty according to procedures determined by the faculty.

The agencies may consist of meetings of all faculty members of a department, school, college, division, or university system, or may take the form of faculty-elected executive committees in departments and schools and faculty-elected senate or council for larger divisions or the institution as a whole.

Among the means of communication among the faculty, administration, and governing board now in use are: (1) circulation of memoranda and reports by board committees, the administration, and faculty committees, (2) joint ad hoc committees, (3) standing liaison committees, (4) membership of faculty members on administrative bodies, and (5) membership of faculty members on governing board. Whatever the channels of communication, they should be clearly understood and observed.[1]

## Faculty Attitudes Toward Participation in Governance

It is commonly recognized that there is a certain ambivalence of sentiment with respect to faculty exercise of the rights referred to above. While faculties tend to be jealous of their prerogatives, there is nonetheless a reluctance on the part of many faculty members, particularly in the large institutions, to become involved in faculty committee work or other institutional activities not closely related to teaching and/or research.

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[1] American Association of University Professors, American Council on Education, Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities (Washington, D. C.: American Association of University Professors, 1966), pp. 12-14.

Logan Wilson states it as his observation that:

> . . . unfortunately, the ablest teachers, scholars, and scientists are too often unwilling to take much time away from their specialized pursuits to devote to the problems of the institution and of higher education as a whole.[1]

However, it must be said that in the state system if some of the ablest teachers and scholars shy away from service on faculty committees concerned with the governance of the institution, it is also true beyond question that many of the most able faculty members give freely, willingly, and effectively of their time to the problems of governance.

Wilson who made a careful observation of faculty governance more than 20 years ago, reported recently, that in the intervening period, the increasing size of the institutions and the increasing complexity of their problems has, in the larger institutions at least, led to the assumption by administrative officers of responsibilities in faculty governance that formerly were spread among faculty committees.

> As for university government, I think it has, in general, become a more discrete rather than a more diffuse process. Despite proclamations by faculty groups regarding the desirability of wider participation in basic concerns of administration (or governance), the increased size and complexity of university operations have necessarily resulted in a more intricate division of labor. As departments and divisions have multiplied horizontally, so has administration gorwn vertically. Structure has adapted itself to function: deans, associate and assistant deans, and other specialized officers of administration have assumed new assignments or are taking on responsibilities formerly spread among faculty individuals and committees.[2]

Speaking from the vantage point of an unusually gifted teacher, Barzun speaks of faculty involvement in the governance of institutions in these piquant terms:

> So much for the executive branch. In almost all places, large or small, there are standing Committees of the Faculty, set up to legislate. Their purview is infinite: courses, students admitted, infractions of the rules, scholarships, buildings and grounds, library acquisitions - there is no subject under the sun which has not at some time or other been the raison d'etre of an academic committee. In general, the more "enlightened," "progressive," and "democratic" the college is, the more committees there are - and the less the life of a teacher is worth living.

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[1] Logan Wilson, "The Professor and His Roles," Improving College Teaching, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967) Calvin B. T. Lee, Ed., p. 102.

[2] Ibid., p. 101.

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> I shall not go so far as to suggest abolishing committees. Abolish every other one and see what happens. Also choose chairmen who have a manly conception of what "democracy" is. It does not mean letting everyone speak for as long as he likes on any theme that offers; it means settling questions after a full exchange of relevant views. Relevance suggests the rule: no gavel, no chairman.
>
> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> As for meetings of a whole faculty, they are closely comparable with the sessions of Congress - some good and some bad, no oratory left, much reliance on committee reports; with the Dean acting as the Chief Executive who wins or loses on the proposals in his "message." There is relatively little caucus work except on rare constitutional questions. Campus politics is of course fact not fiction, but it takes rather the form of personal influence upon the executive power than moving assemblies to decisive votes.[1]

## The Weight of Faculty Non-Teaching Service

We cannot end this brief reference to the faculty without special comment on the weight on faculty of non-teaching services they are expected to render. Barzun's comment above alludes to the burdens of committee work concerning which we shall comment in a moment.

Faculty members are commonly expected to help carry the administrative burdens of the department; to help shoulder the burdens incident to those general college or university affairs that fall within the purview of the faculty; to gain and maintain status in their discipline through participation in state, regional, or national conferences; to provide service to the state or community as an avenue to maintaining effective institutional relations with the people of the state; to speak to various groups in the community and state; if in a professional school, to maintain close and effective working relationships with members of the profession; to provide consultative help to business, industry, and government, as time will allow; to write for professional or scholarly journals. The list could be made longer, but this suffices to indicate something of the kinds of "extra" responsibilities that the faculty member comes to accept as a part of his working load.

Speaking more specifically to Barzun's comment about the committee load that faculty members carry, we would emphasize again that the faculty has numerous legislative and administrative responsibilities; that it is dependent largely upon committees of the faculty and its representative body (the faculty senate) for the accomplishment of these responsibilities. Faculty members are expected to be willing to carry a fair share of this non-teaching work load, but some carry much more than their share because they are persons of ability and feel an obligation to these faculty responsibilities. This is not to deny that some do so in part because faculty service in an important faculty leadership position is heady stuff.

But some faculty spend as much or more time on faculty legislative or administrative business than they do in teaching, without any compensating reduction in teaching load or compensating benefit of any kind to their teaching as a result of faculty service. The weight of these non-teaching responsibilities cannot be overlooked when considering faculty time given to teaching.

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[1] Barzun, op. cit., pp. 159-161.

It has sometimes been suggested that some of these legislative and administrative responsibilities of the faculty should be taken away from the faculty so as to allow them more time for their teaching duties. Onerous as committee assignments may sometimes be, faculties would not with equanimity see their powers reduced in this fashion. A more palatable solution to their way of thinking would be to provide the faculty more administrative assistance in the discharge of its departmental and general university non-teaching duties and generally to increase the level of secretarial and clerical assistance which is traditionally considered far below what good management would dictate.

## Summary

Our brief characterization of the college or university faculty member in the preceding pages sought to identify:

- A number of characteristics that faculty members share by reason of their membership in the professorial fraternity.
- A number of other characteristics affecting their motivations, which they share with persons in other professions.

What emerges is the picture of a professional -

- Independent in character, upheld in his independence and shielded from pressures to conform, by two firmly rooted academic principles: academic freedom and indefinite tenure.
- Disciplined to recognize "colleague authority" expressed through voluntary agreements based upon individual consent.
- Committed to the academic discipline in which his expertise lies; in many instances feeling more allegiance to his discipline than to the institution in which he happens at the moment to be practicing that discipline.
- Possessed of a personal "authority" unique to this period, bestowed upon him by: (1) his expertise in a demanding discipline, (2) in many instances - particularly in the sciences - by his ability to attract funds from outside sources (federal and private), and (3) the bullish academic job market which makes him independent, since academic positions are plentiful.
- Plagued by the same resistance to change that is so common to mankind, and fiercely resistive to changes which he feels represent an administrative incursion into faculty domains.
- Immersed in the life of the mind, and deriving his fullest satisfactions from living under conditions offering the fullest freedom to promote the effective development of the mind - his own and that of his students.
- Possessed of the same desire to share in the material abundance of our economy as characterizes most other professions; in canny pursuit of a reasonable standard of living and of financial security for himself and his family.

Our aseptic treatment of the faculty groupings within which the college or university professor moves and has his being (at the departmental, school or college, or all-campus levels) reveals none of the pulsing, vibrant life that animates these faculty groupings in operation. We excuse ourselves of any obligation to draw out in fuller view or finer detail the mechanisms of academic politics and statesmanship through which the work of the faculties is done, on the grounds that such of these matters as are particularly germane to our present discussion will be dealt with in later sections of this report which speak specifically to the questions related to the improvement of instruction.

One thing only in summary would we say about these faculty groupings: they are dependent upon faculty committees (standing and *ad hoc*) and usually, a representative faculty body (commonly called a faculty senate), for the accomplishment of their work. Since much legislative, and administrative work as well, must be accomplished by the faculty, the burden at the committee level is a significant one and detracts from the time which would otherwise be available to faculty for instruction and preparation for instruction and writing. For those faculty members heading major faculty committees the burden is especially heavy, although usually carried with great good grace by them.

## The Students

### Heterogeneity of Students

The most obvious and most unchallengeable thing that can be said about the learners in our institutions is that they are different, one from the other. They vary widely in their abilities, their interests, their potentialities for growth, their aspirations, their educational backgrounds, and the educational backgrounds of their families.

This heterogeneity among students is one of the most distinctive characteristics of American higher education. And student heterogeneity tends to be greater among state institutions than among some private or independent institutions. This is so because the institutions supported by the state tend to admit students of a wider range of abilities as a concession to the public source of their support.

In some states (e.g., California) efforts have been made in the past to reduce this heterogeneity of learners in at least the major public university by establishing admission standards for the university that admit students only from the upper portions of high school graduating classes. But sense of commitment to the disadvantaged has modified all that, so that the heterogeneity of students even at Berkeley is now very great, as a recent faculty committee at Berkeley indicated:

> Another important reason for the fragmentation of the student body is the wide diversity among the students themselves. Variations that are common at all universities are magnified here, for Berkeley is at the same time both a community college and a world-renowned center of learning. Its students are unusually heterogeneous.[1]

### State System Student Bodies Are Heterogeneous

In Oregon, admission standards in state system institutions are, by design, only mildly selective, which makes for continuing heterogeneity among students. The state system admission standards have grown out of the feeling that there is justification for establishing the threshold for admission at a level such that students with just average high school grades may be permitted the opportunity to demonstrate their capacity to do college work. This decision makes it seem likely that the proportion of students admitted and then eliminated for failure to maintain institutional standards will be higher than were the admission standards more rigorous. But the public nature of the institutions justifies the less rigorous admission standards.

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[1] University of California, Berkeley, Academic Senate, Education at Berkeley, Report of the Select Committee on Education (Berkeley: University of California, 1966), p. 16.

Coupled with an effective program of selective retention, these standards have the effect of giving the students the benefit of the doubt and at the same time permitting the institutions to maintain defensible standards of quality. All things considered, this policy seems appropriate to the Oregon situation where the state system institutions are none of them large institutions (the largest has 12,500 3-term FTE) and where three are quite small (3,300, 2,500, 1,400, 3-term FTE).

The state system program for the disadvantaged students, which permits institutions to admit without their meeting regular admission standards a number of students equal to 3 percent of the entering freshmen the preceding year, increases student heterogeneity.

### Heterogeneity of Students Demands Variety in Programs

Heterogeneity in student characteristics and qualities demands variety in learning opportunities, a variety characterized by:

- A range in subject matter programs open to students.
- A range in the character of learning experiences open to students within given subject matter areas.
- A variety of instructional approaches to learning.

Widespread acceptance of, and appreciation for, the variety of learning opportunities needed within an institution to serve these diverse student needs is dependent upon an understanding and acceptance of a concept of excellence in education that permits each of the varied programs offered to be judged in terms of its own aims and objectives rather than in terms of a single standard having relevance for only one type of program. For, if a single standard of excellence is applied in assessing the quality of all institutional programs, it is evident that many of these programs will be considered inferior by students, their families, and even by faculty members, simply because they are different. Such misjudgment is likely to have one or more of the following disastrous effects upon the maintenance of the kind of diversity of opportunity that is essential if our institutions are to serve these diverse student needs:

1. Diversity would be discouraged in programs and in program objectives in institutions. Programs would be encouraged to give up whatever uniqueness they may have in an effort to conform to the characteristics of the program for which a single standard of excellence has meaning.

   To illustrate, it is vitally important that the BA/BS program in community service and public affairs recently authorized UO by the Board be evaluated in terms of its objectives rather than in terms of the objectives of the academic subject matter programs from which the new program will draw much of its content (i.e., anthropology, economics, political science, public administration, sociology).

   The new program is a professional program. Its aim is to meet the needs of students whose primary interest is in seeking an outlet, upon graduation, into satisfying employment in the community service and public affairs areas. On the other hand, the academic disciplines from which the new program will draw its content emphasize preparation of their major students for the scholarly life which, for many, will involve extended graduate study leading to the doctoral degree. To assess the new professional program as a failure because it does not meet standards that are irrelevant to it (however relevant they may be to the academic disciplines) is as wrong as it would be to force the new program into a mold patterned after programs already available in the academic disciplines in order that the new program may look better in terms of the standards appropriate to the academic disciplines.

The four-year engineering technology programs recently authorized the OSU School of Engineering would have served equally well to illustrate the foregoing point.

2. The fullest use of the capacities of those professors who are employed in programs for which the single standard of excellence is largely irrelevant, would be denied us. There can be little zest in spending one's energies in the performance of functions little recognized or appreciated, and when there is no real prospect that staff can gain distinction from performance of a unique function superlatively well. Under these circumstances professors are most unlikely to be able to give their best.

3. Potential students and their parents would be misled into assuming that one particular kind of program is superior to all others for all purposes. Students will be led into the error of choosing the program they enter on the basis of a false sense of prestige, rather than in terms of their own capabilities and needs. Many of them will thus deny themsleves access to the very programs which are designed specifically to meet their special needs.

## No Single Standard of Excellence is Adequate

One of the commonest criticisms of colleges and universities is that they tend to set a single standard of excellence having relevance for programs attractive to a particular kind of student. Arrowsmith's comments on this matter are as pointed as most.

> The scholar has disowned the student - that is, the student who is not a potential scholar - the student has reasonably retaliated by abandoning the scholar. This I believe is the only natural reading of what I take to be a momentous event: the secession of the student from the institutions of higher learning on the grounds that they no longer educate and are, therefore, in his word, irrelevant.[1]

## Grouping of Students

On the other hand, there are those in the academic community who are of the view that if the interests of the students are to be well served there must be a continuing effort within institutions to find ways of grouping students in more homogeneous subgroups. Thus it is that honors programs have developed across the country to serve the needs of the academically gifted student.

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[1] William Arrowsmith, "The Future of Teaching," Improving College Teaching, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 59.

But this is no easy solution to the problem either, for the concept of creating homogeneous subgroups within the institution raises the kinds of disturbing questions spoken of by Trow: "Is it wise to create more homogeneous subgroups within the university? What proportion of teaching and other resources should we allocate to the less able students (who need them more) and what to the more able (who want and will profit from them more)? What effects will segregation on the basis of common interest and ability have, both on the 'elite' and on the 'average' groups"?[1]

## The Need to Push On

Lacking definitive answers to these questions, Trow suggests that we must avoid the temptation to temporize until the answers are known. Rather he suggests that we should move to innovate and "see what happens." "Let us," he says, "by all means design new courses and new ways of teaching; let us try them out; but let us be sure that we follow them through and attend to their fates."[2]

## Subcultures Within the Student Body

What we have earlier said about grouping of students has to do with their grouping for instructional purposes. There is another kind of grouping that is of importance to a report such as this. These are the groupings that relate to the social psychologists' efforts to understand the student body.

Mayhew, who has written extensively on the subject of higher education curricula, feels that Martin Trow has developed a typology for visualizing the character of student bodies that is helpful in thinking about curricular matters. Trow identifies four kinds of student subcultures which exist, Mayhew says, "in varying proportions and amounts on different campuses."

- An occupational subculture "composed of students who are really establishing a contract with the college. This is the student who, in effect, says, "I'll come and put in my time and in return you give me certain kinds of training which I can put to immediate vocational use. This is the way in which I am moving up the socio-economic ladder." This youngster looks at courses in one way.

- A play subculture. "For these students, college is a hiatus between the tempestuous period of adolescence and the competitive world of adulthood. College is for play, fraternities, social life, the big game syndrome, beer party on the week end and so forth."

- An academic subculture. "These are the students who academicians generally prefer, the students who value abstraction, who see virtue in the liberal arts and sciences just for their own sake and who very likely will become the college professors of the next generation. These are the people who are not really interested in a particular vocational outcome but who are interested in ideas."

[1] Martin Trow, "Undergraduate Teaching at Large State Universities," Improving College Teaching, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967) Calvin B. T. Lee, Ed., p. 180.

[2] Ibid., p. 180.

- A Bohemian subculture. ". . . A group of people who are using the college as an environment in which they can set their own goals. The Bohemian subculture is probably using its own environment as one way of opposing some other prevailing environment. Each one of these groups or subcultures is trying to get certain needs fulfilled by the institution."[1]

The varying interests and objectives of these subcultures have relevance to the kinds of general educational opportunities that institutions must be prepared to offer.

The Select Committee on Education of the University of California at Berkeley (1966) commenting on subcultures in higher education suggested in the concluding summary of its chapter on "The Berkeley Students," a slightly different typology growing out of the Berkeley experience.

> This brief look at the ferment among our students has attempted to make clearer some of the reasons for the ambiguity of their attitude toward the University that was observed at the outset. There are many varieties of students.

The committee then dichotomizes, for simplicity's sake, these varieties of students as follows:

- Those students who are "on the whole satisfied, or at least not inclined to demonstrate their discontent by breaking with the University . . ." These include:
    - "Those who by and large approve of American Society as it is . . ."
    - ". . . those who enjoy the culture of fraternities and dormitories . . ."
    - ". . . those who come here specifically to prepare for a profession . . ."[2]
- Those who are "more likely to react against their education, dropping out or protesting against the University." These include:
    - "Those who have more complex personalities or who are upset . . ."
    - ". . . those who choose to study humanities and social sciences . . ."
    - ". . . those whose individualism makes them prefer living alone . . ."

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[1] Lewis B. Mayhew, "Organizing General Education in Terms of Diverse Student Needs, Plans and Aspirations," Innovations in Higher Education. Kenneth J. Hallam, ed., (Baltimore, Maryland: Towson State College, 1966), pp. 20-21.

[2] Education at Berkeley, p. 35.

> ". . . those who reject important aspects of American society . . ."[1]

In an important qualification of the foregoing dichotomization the Select Committee cautions:

> . . . These attitudes are not mutually exclusive and the different mixture of them in different students can account for the same person's voicing expressions of both criticism and admiration. The fact that their attitudes toward the University are as much influenced by their outlook on society as by the actual nature of the education they receive makes it unlikely that any set of reforms can satisfy all their complaints.[2]

## Student Participation in Institutional Governance

It is not our purpose to treat here the issues that trouble our campuses, as these issues relate to student participation in institutional governance. That topic will be the subject of a later report to the Board.

We do wish here to examine briefly the matter of student participation in curricular planning and evaluation of instruction. As a prelude to that discussion we present a statement on student status jointly approved recently (1966) by three important bodies in American higher education: American Association of University Professors, American Council on Education, and the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges.

### On Student Status

> When students in American colleges and universities desire to participate responsibly in the government of the institution they attend, their wish should be recognized as a claim to opportunity both for educational experience and for involvement in the affairs of their college or university. Ways should be found to permit significant student participation within the limits of attainable effectiveness. The obstacles to such participation are large and should not be minimized: inexperience, untested capacity, a transitory status which means that present action does not carry with it subsequent responsibility, and the inescapable fact that the other components of the institution are in a position of judgment over the students. It is important to recognize that student needs are strongly related to educational experience, both formal and informal. Students expect, and have a right to expect, that the educational process will be structured, that they will be stimulated by it to become independent adults, and that they will have effectively transmitted to them the cultural heritage of the larger society. If institutional support is to have its fullest possible meaning it should incorporate the strength, freshness of view and idealism of the student body.

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[1] _Ibid_., p. 35.
[2] _Ibid_., p. 35.

> The respect of students for their college or university can be enhanced if they are given at least these opportunities: (1) to be listened to in the classroom without fear of institutional reprisal for the substance of their views, (2) freedom to discuss questions of institutional policy and operation, (3) the right to academic due process when charged with serious violations of institutional regulations, and (4) the same right to hear speakers of their own choice as is enjoyed by other components of the institutions.[1]

Institutional decisions as to ways of permitting "significant student participation" in the affairs of their college or university "within the limits of attainable effectiveness," are necessarily decisions which must be worked out within each institution in the light of its needs and the conditions that obtain therein. We do not propose in this report to suggest for the state system institutions what that role ought to be, or even that the role of students should necessarily be the same in all institutions.

## Student Roles in Curricular Planning

On those campuses where students do not already participate in some fashion in curricular planning, they are, in ever more strident voices, demanding participation.

In the academic community one finds that there is a continuum of views as to the appropriate student role in curricular planning, extending on the one hand from the view (held by relatively few faculty members) that students have nothing of significance to contribute to sound curricular planning, to the view at the other end of the continuum (held by relatively few activist students) that students, as educational consumers, ought to have everything to say about the curriculum. Between these two extremes lies the broad middle ground within which institutions have developed working relationships in curricular planning that give what each institution considers an appropriate role to each of the several important groups within the institution (faculty, administration, students) in the development of curricular plans.

Within this middle ground institutions vary as to the role accorded students in curricular planning.

1. In some institutions, the views of students concerning the curriculum and related matters are sought by curricular planning bodies, but the students are given no membership on the planning body and have no role in the decision-making process.

   Illustrative of this view is the following observation of a college dean:

   > If it is inappropriate for curricular flexibility to be forced by administrative decree, it is even worse for it to be undertaken solely as a result of student demand. What I have to say in this regard may be unpopular in these days of widening student involvement in collegiate affairs. I hope I will not be misunderstood. I have a great affection and sympathy for the American college student. Student opinion in our curricular

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[1] Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities, p. 14.

> matters should be solicited by the faculty member and administrator. Student ideas with respect to teaching, subject matter, credits and grades and other topics related to their education can be very useful, very valuable. They think they know what they like and they should be encouraged to express themselves.
>
> However, the student is the student, the learner, the inexperienced and uninformed. He or she cannot possibly have the expertness or perspective to make decisions involving fundamental changes in the curriculum. An adolescent probably would hesitate to advise his doctor on medical matters, his lawyer on legal matters. Why, then, does he assume that his professor lacks the necessary qualities to decide on curricular matters? (The answer, of course, may be that some professors are not as well qualified as they think they are.) Student opinion should be sought but I have strong reservations about involving students in the legislative and organizational process by which curricular matters are decided.[1]

In the same vein is the observation of Josephy Tussman of the University of California (Berkeley) who was quoted in Time magazine, March 15, 1968, as saying that the demand for student power carries "peer-group consciousness" into the absurdity of a "children's crusade" that a college must "remain in its mood, its state of mind, and its morality essentially adult - it has a civilizing mission."

Speaking broadly to the student's role in the institution, rather than strictly to his role in curricular planning, Frankel emphasizes the right of the student's views to be heard, but emphasizes the belief that students "have an obligation to distinguish between their right to have an administration or faculty hear their case, and the right always to have that case approved."[2]

> The student is an apprentice in the academic community and does not have the credentials to justify his exercise of equal authority with the faculty or the administration in the government of that community's affairs. He is, furthermore, a member of a transient population, while his teachers, deans, and president presumably are not. The model of full political democracy, therefore, simply does not apply to the campus. Neither does the model of collective bargaining, for the relation between the student and those in charge of his education is not a bargaining relationship. From a purely formal point of view, all that can be said is that students have the right to bring their interests and opinions to the attention of the college.

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[1] Charles C. Cole, Jr., "Organization for Curricular Flexibility," Innovations in Higher Education (Baltimore, Maryland: Towson State College, 1966), p. 64.

[2] Charles Frankel, "Rights and Responsibilities in Student-College Relationships," The College and the Student, Lawrence Dennis and Joseph Kauffman, eds. (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1966), p. 247.

> But there is a profound difference between a situation in which students have a formal right to petition and protest. and one in which there are regular procedures for close and continuing consultation with them. An effort to draw a blueprint for student government applicable to all situations would be foolhardy. However, in their capacity as educators, administrators and faculty members have an unmistakable, though not formally codifiable, responsibility to consult with students honestly and actively. Prudence as well as academic etiquette recommends this principle.[1]

Charles E. Odegaard, President of the University of Washington, emphasizes the primacy of the faculty in decision-making, but urges a continuing search for more effective communication between faculty and students.

> Students are asking questions about the significance of the educational enterprise. Should faculties in response not seek ways to organize an effective dialogue?
>
> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> I hope that we will develop better procedures than we now have for discussing educational policy with students. The faculty must continue to be the guardians of academic disciplines and of professional competences, and this means that they must make the decisions about the curriculum and the academic staff. But their effectiveness in transmitting the traditions of the disciplines and professions to the next generation can be increased by greater sensitivity to student reactions to instruction and greater interest in obtaining reliable information about student response.[2]

2. Some other institutions view the student as an academic partner with the faculty in the academic community and offer him a place in the decision-making bodies as they work with curricular issues.

- James P. Dixon, President of Antioch College, has spoken as eloquently as most in support of the foregoing position. He holds with Benson Snyder that "the language of dialogue as opposed to the language of negotiation is better suited to dealing with student demands." This suggests, says Dixon, that:

> . . . it is not necessary to use the conventional model of political democracy. What is needed is a new model for an intellectual democracy - a democracy in which power and authority are ascribed to the person who knows and can communicate rather than to the representative of a constituency. /Emphasis added./
>
> There needs to be recognition, as Theodore Newcomb points out in his background paper, that styles of organization in education sharply affect possibilities for change. In an intellectual democracy, arrangements would be such as to avoid

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[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 246-247.

[2] Charles D. Odegaard, "Organizing an Effective Student-Faculty Dialogue," *The College and the Student*, Lawrence Dennis and Joseph Kauffman, eds. (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1966), pp. 175-176.

> overspecification of work, to distribute innovative functions to everyone - including students - in the organization, and to diminish the concentration of position and authority in individuals.[1]/Emphasis added/

Continuing in that same vein, Dixon says:

> Students, then, have a proper interest, and are important as both resource and ingredient, in the determination of pedagogical and curricular arrangements. Their suggestions about curricular reform should be listened to. But far more threatening to the academic establishment than a sit-in in the president's office is the attack on prescribed curriculum. Already students know that, with the exception of the physical sciences, there need not be much relation between one's course of undergraduate study and one's graduate election. One beneficial consequence is that students are free to choose among many different routes within the curriculum. But this freedom disturbs many academicians, since it seems to leave to chance the recruitment of students into specialized fields and since it places less reliance on the faculty's wisdom in determining the choice of program.
>
> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> If the university is not to be blindly subverted by present pressures, the members of its faculty need to ask themselves whether the current notion of always regarding the student as less than equal in the community of scholars will really stand scrutiny. What do they make of the fact that the students who are abler in conventional intellectual terms are at the same time the leaders of the revolt against the establishment? If we could bring ourselves to accept the notion that in some ways all students and all teachers are members of a community of teaching and learning - of learning through teaching and teaching through learning - then we would soon find that it is important to hear what the student is saying, and to give him his say even to matters of curricular reform. Student opinion can be heeded in responding to the public criticism of courses and teaching. There is even isolated evidence that students can effectively participate in the recruitment and selection of faculty.[2]

## Student-Sponsored Courses

It is not uncommon for either of the two foregoing general patterns of student participation in curricular planning to be accompanied by the creation by the students of a separate student curricular planning body to give voice to the views of a certain activist segment of the student body on curricular matters. The activities of such student groups are seen in the student-sponsored courses offered on a number of campuses, including the University of Oregon.

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[1] James P. Dixon, "The Student's Role in Educational Policy," The College and the Student (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 59.

[2] Ibid., pp. 166-67.

The University of Oregon student group is known as SEARCH, an acronym for Students' Exploratory Actions Regarding Curricular Heterodoxy. Sponsored by the Associated Students of the University of Oregon, SEARCH seeks through appropriate academic departments and professional schools on campus to have courses offered that seem to the student group to have particular interest for some segments of the student body (i.e., Black Power, Viet Nam, Social Revolution, Peace). In some instances these courses are taught under the auspices of the departments and schools of the institution and carry academic credit applicable toward a degree; in others, the courses are non-credit.

## California Study Committees on Student Participation in Educational Policy Formation

We digress here momentarily to provide an illustration of an attitude vis-a-vis student participation in the development of educational policy in a major institution. We report on the recommendations of two recent study committees at the University of California (Berkeley) which have spoken to the matter of student participation in curricular planning and educational policy development, in general. The aspects of these reports with which we deal are those which speak specifically to the question of student participation in educational policy formation at two levels: (1) the departmental level, and (2) the all-institution level.

The first of these reports, by the Select Committee of the faculty (appointed by the Academic Senate of the University of California), known as the Muscatine Report, took the view that student-faculty committees at the departmental level are useful and desirable in the formulation of educational policies, but that at the all-institutional level, student participation on faculty committees is not desirable. The second committee (the student-faculty Study Commission on University Governance, established by the Berkeley Division of the Academic Senate and the Senate of the Associated Students of the University of California), like the Muscatine committee, commended student participation on faculty committees at the departmental level, but unlike the Muscatine committee, urged also student participation on all-institution faculty committees.

On these matters, the Muscatine report (1966) said:

> Although our students have most to say about the educational problems of their own departments, they nevertheless may make significant contributions toward the educational planning of the entire campus, as they have done for this Committee. Some student groups feel that they need a collective, forceful student voice to counteract the more influential voices of the faculty and administration. These groups believe that all decisions reached behind closed doors are untrustworthy. They want the presence of students on faculty and administrative committees as insurance that the committees will take no action harmful to the students.

> Though we are convinced that faculty committees must remain aware of and sensitive to student opinions in order to formulate successful educational policy, we are also convinced that student membership on faculty committees will not hasten improvements, but could provide the ideal mechanism for polarization and impasse. The typical faculty member does not get called for committee service until he has reached tenure rank. He has had a good deal of experience with the intellectual and pragmatic aspects of campus life. Thus student members of faculty-student committees often are at a distinct disadvantage compared to faculty members in areas outside their own experience as students; and they do not have, nor can they be expected to have, professional responsibility for educational policy. We believe that campus-wide faculty committees should consult student opinion in the same way that they consult many other sources of information before reaching decisions on educational policy. We do not believe that more direct student participation will necessarily lead to an atmosphere of greater intellectual and political trust.
>
> Faculty-student committees work well on the departmental level because within the department professors and students share a common interest in their subject, and because the students know best the educational problems of their own departments. Campus-wide faculty-student committees would lack such advantage. For these reasons we would prefer campus-wide student committees, which should meet periodically with the counterpart faculty committees to exchange information and viewpoints. Campus-wide student groups concerned with student participation in educational policy already exist.[1]

In January 1968, two years after the Muscatine Report, the student-faculty commission observed despite endorsement by campus officials of the concept of student participation in policy-making at the departmental level, little had changed:

> Although both the Chancellor and the Academic Senate have endorsed the concept of incorporating student views in policy-making in departments and other local units, this goal has been realized only to a very limited extent. It is too soon to evaluate fully the programs recently undertaken, but our general findings are that significant participation, especially in matters of educational policy, is confined to graduate and professional students in several schools and departments; that few, if any, channels exist for undergraduate, nonprofessional students; and that, in general, the campus still lacks a widespread commitment to experimentation in this field.[2]

The commission then speaks in strong support of meaningful student involvement at the departmental level in major policy decisions, through: (1) appointment of students to all departmental level faculty committees "in which problems are discussed and policies formulated," and (2) invitation to nonvoting student representatives to attend and to participate in "departmental meetings at which decisions are finally made." Commenting on the scope of the student participation recommended, the commission said:

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[1] Education at Berkeley, p. 62.

[2] The Study Commission on University Governance, The Culture of the University: Governance and Education (Berkeley, California: University of California, 1968), p. 43.

> Most of the committee seats already given to students involve aspects of work on the curriculum, although instances of students serving on admissions, library, and financial aid committees also exist. Committee participation in curriculum matters should range from long-range academic planning and continuing general evaluation of both undergraduate and graduate programs to special groups considering such matters as the reform of major requirements, policies concerning teaching assistants, qualifying exams, and graduate admissions. Students should participate directly in the committees considering such matters, and when committee proposals are discussed in departmental meetings, student members should be invited to attend and speak. Other questions of educational policy - such as the appointment of visitors, or the priorities to be assigned to meeting teaching needs in different fields - could be discussed in the graduate and undergraduate councils or through the inclusion of students on *ad hoc* committees considering such proposals.[1]

Other committees on which the foregoing student-faculty commission felt students should be involved include: committees dealing with use of departmental physical space, "especially in the design of commons rooms, special library collections, and service facilities." "To the extent," said the committee, "that auxiliary services such as placement and financial aid become further decentralized, students should be included on policy and planning bodies for such activities."[2]

With respect to the student role in faculty tenure decisions, the commission reported that there is a surprising amount of agreement on the matter among students and faculty:

> Controversy has had the effect of obscuring a surprising amount of agreement on the subject. Few students will dispute that faculty should have final authority to decide promotions and appointments, while few faculty will assert that student opinion ought to be wholly disregarded in evaluating the performance and promise of the faculty.[3]

As to the value of student views on teaching, the commission sees an important contribution to be made by student opinion.

> It follows that on many matters relating to the promotion and tenure of faculty, student participation, especially of undergraduates, would be undesirable. But regarding teaching, advising,

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 47.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*

> and supervising of individual work, student views may be of great value, particularly if they are able to promote a greater emphasis on these functions as criteria of faculty performance. Student influence, then, should be strongly weighted in reference to these matters. If effective procedures can be developed for this purpose, existing methods, which largely rely on hearsay, can be replaced to the advantage of faculty and students alike.[1]

As to campus-wide planning, the student-faculty commission has recommended as a basis for discussion the dissolution of the Associated Students of the University of California, the present student government association, and its replacement with different organization consisting of: (1) a large representative Student Senate (75 members elected from constituencies) which would have a role analogous to that of the Academic Senate, (2) an independent Student Union Board of Directors. In addition, the committee recommends that students have a voice in the development of policies which concern the entire community "but for which the Chancellor's Office and the Academic Senate bear predominant responsibility."

> In addition to a representative and effective central organization through which the student body may express opinions, initiate programs, and assume significant governing responsibilities, measures must be devised that will enable students to participate directly in shaping policies which concern the entire community but for which the Chancellor's Office and the Academic Senate bear predominant responsibility. Inevitably, the search for such measures focuses upon the network of advisory and legislative committees, which, despite its many shortcomings, offers some promise of becoming an effective center of policy formulation and discussion.[2]

As for student participation at the institution-wide level in educational policy-making, the committee appears not to share the views of the Muscatine faculty committee, which did not recommend student membership on institution-wide faculty educational policy committees.

> In order to expand student participation in the formulation of educational policies, the Commission recommends that two students ( one undergraduate and one graduate, to be appointed by the Student Senate's Committee on Committees) become voting members of the following Academic Senate committees: Educational Policy, Teaching, Admissions and Enrollment, Board of Educational Development, Council on Special Curricula, Committee on Courses, and Academic Planning (a new committee proposed by the Senate Policy Committee now before the Academic Senate). The Student Senate should nominate at least two graduate students to serve on the Graduate Council.
>
> To coordinate the work of these delegates, the Student Senate should create a Council on Educational Policy, to be composed of the representatives to these committees, four or six senators, several delegates from departmental student councils, and several

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[1] Ibid., pp. 47-48.
[2] Ibid., p. 54.

> at-large members (drawn from student organizations active in educational programs and evaluation, such as SERF Board). This Council would serve as a forum for discussing reports of committee representatives, facilitating the exchange of information and ideas among the various committee members, channeling new proposals and evaluations to the various delegates, and serving as a nucleus for students generally interested in educational reforms.[1]

It should be emphasized that the commission specifically stated that it does not anticipate that its recommendations will result in any immediate solutions to the problems they are intended to deal with. Nor is the committee convinced that its specific proposals will ultimately prove to be the most satisfactory answers. The committee notes that:

> . . . Change in the patterns of governance, which depends in large measure on achieving substantial campus decentralization, is inevitably a gradual process to be undertaken in an experimental spirit that expects, recognizes, and corrects mistakes. But we are convinced that major effort along the lines we advance is long overdue and urgently required.[2]

## Student Evaluation of Instruction

In the spring of 1966, the American Council on Education initiated a survey to discover what techniques for the evaluation of undergraduate instruction were then in use. The Council polled all higher educational institutions listed in the U. S. Office of Education *Directory*. The questionnaire used "was designed to obtain information in three general areas: the frequency with which various sources of information are used in judging a professor's teaching ability; techniques used for training new college teachers; and the importance of classroom teaching relative to other factors (such as publication, committee work, community service, and so forth) in the overall index of faculty members for promotion, salary and tenure."

Usable responses were received by the Council from 1,110 two- and four-year colleges and universities. An analysis of these responses revealed the fact, as noted below, that *systematic* student evaluation of instruction is little used in American higher education and the extent of its use as a technique is reported to have declined substantially in the five-year period, 1961-1966.[3]

> . . . even though the dean, the department chairman, and professional colleagues have the final say about a professor's teaching ability, their evaluations must be based on the opinions of others. Thus these final judgments must depend on hearsay evidence - informal student opinions. Of the institutions polled, only 9.6 percent said that *informal* student opinions were not used, whereas 47.6 percent indicated that they did not use *systematic* student ratings.[4] /Emphasis added/

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[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 32.

[3] John W. Gustad, "Evaluation of Teaching Performance: Issues and Possibilities," *Improving College Teaching* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 27.

[4] Alexander W. Astin and Calvin B. T. Lee, "Current Practices in the Evaluation and Training of Teachers," *Improving College Teaching* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 298.

Commenting on the foregoing finding, Astin and Lee reacted as follows:

> If the ultimate measure of the teacher's effectiveness is his impact on the student - a view which few educators would dispute - it is unfortunate that these sources of information most likely to yield information about this influence are least likely to be used.[1]

Practices Where Student Evaluations Are Used

In institutions in which student evaluation of instructors is encouraged, practice varies in the way in which such evaluations are used.

1. Student evaluations of instruction as an aid in the professors' self-evaluation.

   In some institutions, department heads and deans encourage faculty members to seek a systematic evaluation of their teaching by their students as another source of information available to the professor in his own self-evaluation. In these institutions, the student's evaluation of the instructor is seen only by the instructor.

   The assumption made in these instances is that the faculty is interested in self-improvement and that student evaluations thus sought will be effectively used by the professor to evaluate his effectiveness in the classroom and that corrective action will be voluntarily undertaken where substantive student criticism seems to have been justified.

   It is this use of student evaluations that the Muscatine Report from the University of California at Berkeley (1966) found most promising. Having reviewed the experiences of more than a dozen institutions which have used student evaluations of instructors and courses in a variety of ways, the Muscatine Report commented:

   > Many use evaluations for administrative purposes, but the most attractive use of student opinion emphasizes the value of providing information to the instructor himself. This is the primary aim of the program at the University of Michigan, a successful example of institutionalization of student opinion and judgment now about fifteen years old. Colleagues at Ann Arbor say that the program, sponsored by a faculty group, did meet with some initial opposition, but after a few years of experience it was accepted at large, and now draws praise from some of its strongest former opponents.
   >
   > At Michigan all courses in the liberal arts college are rated by students every third term. There is no bureaucratic apparatus encumbering the program; each instructor administers a standard questionnaire which is completed in his absence, retained in a sealed envelope in the department office, and given to him after the completion of grading . . . .All

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[1] Ibid., p. 299.

> instructors are thus automatically provided with student feedback. The form has been designed with the secondary aim of stimulating the student to think of educational objectives . . . The evaluation forms are the private property of the instructor, unless the faculty of a department vote as a whole to pass them on to their chairman.[1]

2. Student evaluation of instruction as an aid (a) to professors in their own self-evaluation, and (b) to administrative officers (department heads, deans, presidents) in the evaluation of faculty members.

Some familiar with higher education are of the opinion that the will to improve as a teacher, if it is in fact a conscious element in the professor's motivation, will be fortified if the student evaluations are seen not alone by the professor, but by his administrative superiors, namely, the department head, dean, or president, who control such matters as tenure, salary, and promotion.

Fairly recent reports from a Yale faculty committee and a University of California faculty committee (Muscatine committee) recommended against the use of student ratings as a basis for tenure and promotion, emphasizing the ill feeling and internal tensions that would be generated by their use for this purpose.

3. Student evaluation of instruction as an aid to (a) professors in self-evaluation, (b) administrative officers in evaluating of faculty, (c) students in the selection of instructors.

These are published evaluations. They are in use in a number of institutions and have been in some for many years. The University of Oregon is the only state system institution in which student evaluations have been published, and this for only the past two years.

Kent reports that faculty reaction to published student evaluations of instruction are mixed:

> . . . Typically, faculty reaction to published evaluations is mixed: at some institutions - Northwestern University and Brooklyn College, for instance - they are well received, at others, rejected completely (the chief grounds for this rejection usually have to do with the reliability of the rating form used, the methodology of the study, or the acidity of the commentary . . . At the University of Washington, faculty reaction to the student-initiated Course Critique was described as "lukewarm," perhaps because the university's own evaluation program, conducted for over thirty-five years, seems sufficient. Even the best-conducted course evaluation can be effective only if the faculty is indeed concerned with improving the quality of instruction, and at all too many institutions they are probably not.[2]

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[1] Education at Berkeley, pp. 58-59.

[2] Kent, op. cit., p. 336.

## Institutional Resistance to Systematic Student Evaluation of Instructors

Institutional resistance to systematic student evaluation of instructors stems from a number of considerations of which the following are the most common:

1. There is no generally accepted criterion of what constitutes effective teaching in college or university.[1]

2. There is a widely held belief that students are not capable of assessing teaching effectiveness. McKeachie, one of the most prolific writers and researchers in the field of college level teaching, asserts, for example, that "we do not know how validly students can rate teaching effectiveness. What evidence we do have is not encouraging. As a result, faculties resist the use of student ratings as a basis for administrative decisions." Continuing, McKeachie says:

   > Even if we can measure some aspects of teacher behavior validly, we do not know the relationship of that behavior to student learning, which is one of our ultimate criteria of effectiveness. And progress here is limited by the fourth gap - the fact that we measure only a limited portion of our educational objectives by our traditional final examination.[2]

   And even if students can judge instructor behavior somewhat accurately, McKeachie observes that "we aren't helped much unless we have some ideas about what kinds of instructor behavior make a difference in student learning." It is in this same vein that Gustad asserts that we are as yet ignorant as to "what contribution the teacher makes to what the student learns."[3]

3. A distrust of the validity and reliability of the rating instruments employed in student rating. Gustad, commenting on this point, notes that despite this distrust, there is almost no effort being given to the research of the validity of the instruments that are in use.

   > . . . The use of systematic student ratings as a technique has declined substantially during the past five years. What is particularly striking - and what may well account for decreased use - is the almost total absence of research on the validity of the instruments that are used. Lacking sound information about their validity, their use could be expected to follow the path of a fad: great enthusiasm followed by disillusion. What little research there is tends to agree that the reliability of these instruments is generally satisfactory. Their validity, in the absence of validation, is another matter.[4]

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[1] H. H. Remmers, "Student Perception of Instructors," The Appraisal of Teaching in Large Universities (Ann Arbor, Michigan; University of Michigan, 1959), p. 17.

[2] W. J. McKeachie, "Appraising Teaching Effectiveness," The Appraisal of Teaching in Large Universities (Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1959), p. 32.

[3] John W. Gustad, "Evaluation of Teaching Performance: Issues and Possibilities," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 280.

[4] Ibid., p. 271.

The University of California Select Committee Report (Muscatine Report) takes the view that the student survey instruments are "subject to bias and unreliability and may reflect other aspects of teacher performance than those most central to basic educational purposes."[1]

4. A faculty concern that what the faculty considers an oversimplified approach to a very complex problem will be accepted by the administration enthusiastically and lead to a misuse of information the validity of which may be in serious doubt.

5. A concern that an inappropriate emphasis upon student rating of instructors may lead to an underemphasis of the student's own responsibility for learning.

Acknowledging that: (1) student ratings are not, and ought not to be, the sole basis for judging the instructor's performance, and (2) students are probably not as well qualified to judge the instructor's grasp of the subject matter of the course as his colleagues, it does, nonetheless, appear that student ratings do tell something about the impact the student thinks the teacher has had upon him. And it is probably true that if one is interested in knowing the attitude of the student toward the instructor and toward the learning situation as he experienced it, there is no equal or better source than the student himself. And the attitude of the student cannot be ignored. For while learning may take place under circumstances in which the student's interest has not been aroused, it seems probably true that learning cannot thrive without an active student interest in the matter at hand. Some form of student evaluation of the instructor and the teaching-learning situation in a given class would seem to provide the instructor with the most direct "feedback" as to his success in eliciting student interest. In the words of a Yale University student:

> It is often the individual student who best knows whether or not he is learning.
>
> It is the student who knows best when he cannot understand or already knows what is being discussed.
>
> It is the student who knows when a course is stimulating him to learn more about a subject or whether it is boring him to death.
>
> It is the student who can best formulate those fundamental and personal questions so bothering him that he cannot readily proceed to other academic matters.
>
> It is the student who can best evaluate when he is beginning to integrate the process of learning with the problems he continually confronts in life.[2]

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[1] Education at Berkeley, p. 57.

[2] James A. Johnson, "Instruction: From the Consumer's View," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), pp. 289-90.

Gustad suggests that provided students ase asked the right kinds of questions they may be an excellent source of information helpful in the evaluation of the learning situation.

> As for students, they are probably reasonably good sources of information when they are asked the right questions. In the present conditions of academia, they are virtually the only direct observers. Ratings based on observations can be useful provided competent observers are involved.
>
> To ask beginning students about the instructor's knowledge of the field is probably of little value. These students could, however, report on their own degree of interest (although it remains to be shown how this relates to what and how much they learn), whether the instructor motivated them to do more than was required, whether he got them interested in taking more work in that department, and so on. If the questions are well phrased, students can probably make pretty good estimates of the instructor's effects on them. In addition, one might be willing to say that one valid outcome of good teaching ought to be that students enjoy the experience. Certainly, the contrary proposition would be difficult to defend.[1]

Kent speaks to the same point as follows:

> For even if it is true that students cannot accurately assess an instructor's mastery of his subject matter (a factor which can be rated with a fair degree of accuracy by other faculty members), they are perfectly capable of saying whether the instructor has presented the subject in an organized manner, whether he communicated it to them, and whether he seemed interested in it. Students can also report their own responses: they can tell if their understanding has been increased, their interest aroused, their curiosity stimulated. These responses in themselves are not proof of a deep and lasting learning experience, but it seems safe to say that in the absence of understanding and interest, nothing meaningful can take place.[2]

The University of Washington Survey form, developed through 41 years of use and research, is cited by Kent as speaking to the kinds of questions to which the student may reasonably be expected to respond with some validity. The form consists of 10 items (each to be rated on a five-point scale - outstanding, superior, competent, only fair, of less value), two open-end items, and a rating of the subject matter content of the courses in terms of its interest to the student. The 10 items forming the body of the survey form upon which the instructor is to be rated, are as follows:

1. Interprets abstract ideas and theories clearly.

2. Gets me interested in his subject.

3. Has increased my skills in thinking.

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[1] John W. Gustad, "Evaluation of Teaching Performance: Issues and Possibilities," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), pp.276-277.

[2] Kent, op. cit., p. 337.

4. Has helped broaden my interests.

5. Stresses important material.

6. Makes good use of examples and illustrations.

7. Has motivated me to do my best work.

8. Inspires class confidence in his knowledge of subject.

9. Has given me new viewpoints or appreciations.

10. Is clear and understandable in his explanations.

The OSU student evaluation forms, which have been in use for many years at OSU and numerous other institutions, are included in the appendix (pp. 139-144.)

## Summary

### Students and Educational Planning

The increasing clamor of students for instructional programs more in keeping with what they consider relevant to their needs, and their even more strident demands for an enlarged role in the decision-making processes affecting the character of the curriculum and the instructional programs, present our institutions with a major challenge - and a significant opportunity.

It is not a challenge which will disappear if ignored. It must be faced, institution by institution. An accommodation must be worked out within the framework of each institution's climate and life style to permit "significant student participation within the limits of attainable effectiveness." This is not to suggest that some institutions may not already have what is for them a satisfactory and desirable working relationship among all of the several elements within the institution that are concerned with the institution's programs. It is only to suggest that each institution will be faced - is faced now - with the need to examine whether, in fact, its present mechanisms for curricular review, curricular development, and educational planning, in general, give appropriate voice to the elements within the institution that have a significant contribution to make to these matters.

The state system institutions are so diverse in character that any one of a number of possible options as to student involvement in institutional matters may prove - in the test - to be the most appropriate and effective for a given institution.

- In some institutions the existing student government may prove to be the mechanism best suited for dealing with student involvement in institutional matters in which the institution feels students have a contribution to make.

- Some institutions may find that a purely advisory role for students on curricular and instructional matters is best, with students serving as nonvoting members on faculty committees, or on student committees paralleling faculty committees, or through some other mechanism which would give students an opportunity to be heard on matters affecting them before proposed policies are "firmed up" by faculty and/or administration.

- Some institutions may feel that students should be involved more directly in the decision-making process affecting curricular and instructional matters and educational planning and may find that a mechanism having some aspects of the plans proposed by the two California committees described in this section of the report, is best suited to their needs.

Or there may be other options that suit institutional conditions better. The important thing is that the institutions examine this matter anew. Student activism being what it is, this is probably a superfluous admonition.

## Student Evaluation of Instruction

There remain many questions to be resolved vis-a-vis student evaluations of instruction. How valid and reliable can they be made? How shall they be used? Primarily for the instructor in his own self-evaluation? As a basis for administrative decisions relating to salary, promotion, and tenure? To provide students a guide for the selection of instructors? How shall relevant groups on campus (administration, faculty, students) participate in making decisions on the foregoing questions?

With all of these questions, and more not suggested here, it is probably nonetheless true, as Remmers has said, that no research has been published invalidating the use of student opinion as one criterion of teaching effectiveness. How that opinion can best be secured and used is a matter that must of necessity be worked out within the context of each campus.

## Improving the Quality of Instruction

Institutions of the state system have three principal functions: instruction, research, and service. Although the relative amount of research done and the range and extent of services rendered by institutions varies with the institution, the importance of high quality instruction requires that all institutions have an equal concern that instruction be effectively performed. Unless there is on the part of the institutions a special, systematic attention to instruction in the future, it is likely that instructional effectiveness will suffer because of: (1) research demands, (2) service demands, and (3) increasing numbers of students who must be accommodated.

Effective institutional emphasis upon the maintenance of instructional activities at a high level of quality would entail the following: (1) an organized, systematic review and evaluation of the present institutional effort to promote effective instruction at all levels in the institutions, (2) an analysis of the roadblocks which hinder greater instructional effectiveness, and (3) the development of long-range plans for moving systematically toward improved instruction in the institution.

The discussion of the improvement of instruction is organized in terms of the following subjects:

- Basic curricular evaluation, department by department.
- Incentives to staff for improving the quality of instruction.
    - Salary, promotion and tenure policies, and recognition of teaching excellence.
    - Assignment of staff as related to improvement of instruction.
    - Evaluation of instruction in the institution.
    - New approaches to learning.
    - Encouragement of staff in the reassessment of their courses and the achievement of students.
    - Special awards for effective teaching.
    - Provision of nonprofessional personnel to relieve the load on the professionally educated faculty members.
- Putting greater responsibility on the student to learn.

## Basic Curricular Evaluation

The improvement of teaching, in its broadest sense, cannot be considered apart from the following:

- The characteristics of the students to be served (their aptitudes, their interests, their needs, their objectives).
- The specific objectives and aims of each curricular program.
- The curricular organization and structure dictated or suggested by these objectives and aims.
- The most effective means of establishing a learning environment, such that these objectives can be attained.
- The means by which departments, and the institution itself, will assess the extent to which the curricular objectives are being met.

The foregoing considerations can be effectively dealt with only by the involvement of all elements of the academic community (faculty, students, department heads, deans, president), and only by a persistent and continuing concern with them, department by department.

For however carefully the curriculum of a department may have been developed at a given point in time, a variety of forces impinging upon the curriculum requires its continuing adjustment, something in the nature of a "tune-up," (where a major overhaul is not indicated). These forces are numerous:

- The more adequate preparation of entering freshmen, as a result of the curricular changes in the high schools, notably since 1958.
- The increasing numbers of students transferring into the four-year colleges and universities as the community colleges grow in number.
- The increasing awareness of basic social issues that in the judgment of some challenge the relevance of some aspects of institutional curricula and curricular planning.
- The militant challenge by students of the relevance of college and university curricula to the student's life.
- The rapid obsolescence of much that is known, occasioned by the unprecedented expansion of knowledge.
- The increasing acceptance of independent study and off-campus work as an integral part of the curriculum.

- The feeling in many quarters that colleges and universities have been and are unimaginative insofar as the creation of an effective learning environment is concerned; that they have permitted curricula to develop in a form which may seem relevant to specialization of knowledge, but out of keeping with the needs of the learner.
- The development of mechanical and electronic devices thought to have greater relevance to the creation of efficient, effective learning environment, than their relatively limited use by colleges and universities would seem to indicate.
- The diverse feelings as to the appropriate relationship of undergraduate education to graduate education.

These periodic reviews of curricula and courses need necessarily to be conducted by departments and institutions with a full realization that each department and institution has its own special and unique problems. But recognizing the individualized character of these curricular problems, it is also true that some kinds of curricular problems are common, in one form or another, to all departments or institutions. Without aiming to provide here an exhaustive list of these common problems, we suggest several by way of illustration.

1. Proliferation of courses. We speak to the general matter of course proliferation here, reserving to the paragraphs below an elaboration of two specific manifestations of course proliferation (duplication of courses, and format of courses).

   A common plaint among those within and without the educational establishment has been that there exists an indefensible proliferation of courses in college and university curricula.

   While inviting attention to the need to consider the extent of proliferation of courses in our institutions, we must at the same time point out that whatever the extent of proliferation in the state system, it is not sufficient to have reduced the student-teacher ratios in our public institutions below a reasonable figure. In 1968-69, the planned ratios for the state system institutions are as follows:

   - UO, 16.4 to 1.
   - OSU, 16.5 to 1.
   - PSC, 16.5 to 1.
   - OCE, 19.1 to 1.
   - EOC, 19.3 to 1.
   - SOC, 19.9 to 1.

It should be explained that the two universities have a lower student-teacher ratio owing to the fact that they have very substantial graduate programs in operation.

2. Duplication and Overlap Duplication and overlap of courses is a common form of proliferation. It may be found within departments (i.e., English, economics) and within divisions of the institution encompassing more than one department (such as when duplicate courses are offered in sociology and political science, for example).

   In some instances such duplication is deliberate; in others, wholly inadvertent. When it occurs within a department, it is often inadvertent, stemming from the piece-meal way in which the department has been permitted to add courses to its curriculum. In such instances, individual faculty members have, at different times, proposed additional courses which were approved with insufficient care being given to examining the relationship of the proposed course to existing courses in the department.

   When a course in one department or division of the institution is found to parallel very closely a similar course in another department or division of the institution, the duplication is often deliberate. Under these circumstances, the duplication may be defended by both departments or divisions, each asserting that the other's course is inadequate to the needs of any other department or division. In other circumstances, one or both of the departments or divisions may agree that there is no need for duplication of courses, but with neither division willing to give way to the other in the offering of the course in question.

   That some course duplication exists is hardly to be argued. What is needed is a vigorous review of courses and curricula by departments and divisions of the institutions with a view to assessing the extent of unnecessary duplication and removing it.

3. Format of courses. A second special case of proliferation of courses is represented by the tendency of departments and divisions of the institutions to organize their offerings in terms of three-term sequences consisting of nine or twelve term hours of work depending upon whether three or four credit hours are granted per term. Often, a course which begins as a single-term three-credit hour course becomes successively a two-term (six-credit hour) sequence course and then a three-term (nine- or twelve-credit hour) sequence course. Given the faculty's interest in what it teaches, the impetus to expand to three-term sequence courses is understandable even though it may not always be clear that such expansion is in the best interest of either faculty or students. In some instances it is conceivable that the best interests of both faculty and students would be served by offering a two-term (six-credit hour) sequence course or a one-term (five-credit hour) course in lieu of a three-term (nine- or twelve-credit hour) course. This is not to suggest that in any given instance all that is dealt with in a three-term sequence course can be dealt with in less time. It is rather to suggest that perhaps the student may not find essential to his education a three-term sequence course in all situations in which he is currently required or expected to take such courses.

Moreover, the proliferation of three-credit hour courses poses some problems for students in that a normal fifteen-credit hour load results in the student's carrying, usually, five three-credit hour courses, requiring five preparations. It is worth asking whether, if the content were organized in a different format, perhaps on the basis of five-credit hour courses, the student would not be advantaged by concentrating his time on three five-credit hour courses. This is a matter that deserves serious consideration by the institutions.

4. Reorganization of introductory courses. It may well be that in some departments or divisions the interests of both faculty and students would be served by a reorganization of the introductory courses which would permit elimination of smaller enrollment courses and the creation of courses of a size to make greater instructional efficiency possible. Substantial steps in this direction have already been taken by institutions, but it is perhaps worth a further effort to ascertain whether other instances might not be found where reorganization of introductory courses would permit greater instructional efficiency.

   The present state system policy, which requires that institutions which offer lower-division courses with an enrollment fewer than 10 should be prepared to justify fully the necessity for such courses, does not go far enough. For it is probably true that once a class reaches a size in which discussion is no longer practicable, and when the lecture is the principal means of communication between the instructor and student, it matters little whether the instructor is lecturing to 50 or 150, except perhaps that a larger audience may put more strain on him.

5. Proliferation of upper-division courses. Proliferation of upper-division courses (courses for junior and senior students) is another form of instructional inefficiency which sometimes afflicts colleges and universities. A common source of such proliferation is the understandable desire of professors to offer courses in the special field of their competency, even when their primary assignment is the teaching of introductory courses for majors in the field, or service courses (courses taught for non-major students).

   Looking at this problem broadly, it is probable that there are courses at the upper-division level which could, to an advantage, enroll a larger number of students. Speaking of the situation nationally, Algo Henderson, of the Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University of Michigan, says "most institutions have dozens of upper-class courses that are too small for good teaching or discussion."[1] There would be fewer such under-enrolled courses if there were fewer upper-class courses offered. This suggests the continuing need for institutional review of the upper division course structure in the several departments of the institution.

Stimulation of faculty effort necessary to the systematic examination of the curricula of the institution, department by department, and school by school, is not an easy task. Such evaluations are time-consuming and take time away from what often appear to be more pressing demands. And they are often disrupting to established and comfortable patterns of operation. Yet without periodic and thoroughgoing evaluations of this character, the day-to-day, year-to-year operations of departments inevitably build into departmental curricula elements that over time become obsolete or unnecessary. Ever and always the price of relevancy is a continuing, hard-headed examination of the objectives of the curriculum and an equally rigorous evaluation of the outcomes of the curricular program.

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[1] Algo D. Henderson, Policies and Practices in Higher Education (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), p. 172.

## Salary, Promotion, Tenure Policies and Recognition of Teaching Excellence

One of the most tangible evidences of institutional concern with the quality of instruction is the extent to which salary, promotion, and tenure policies are applied in a fashion to give appropriate recognition to good teaching.

An allegation commonly heard and widely believed is that colleges and universities are dominated by a publish-or-perish mentality that rewards the publishing scholar and seriously penalizes the individual whose primary interest is teaching.

One finds in the academic world itself two views, at opposite poles on this question: One, that such a policy does exist and is generally operative in colleges and universities; two, that it does not exist - except in fancy - in other than a few leading universities in the country.

Illustrative of the first of these views are the two quotations which follow.

> For most members of the profession, the real strain in the academic role arises from the fact that they are, in essence, paid to do one job, whereas the worth of their services is evaluated on the basis of how well they do another . . . Most professors contract to perform teaching services for their universities and are hired to perform those services. When they are evaluated, however, either as candidates for a vacant position or as candidates for promotion, the evaluation is made principally in terms of their research contributions to their disciplines.[1]
>
> There is a rising tide of grumbling everywhere, and especially in the larger universities, about the lack of attention to effective teaching and the absence of systematic means of teacher improvement . . . to the best of my knowledge, however, there is not a major institution anywhere that has made a strenuous, across-the-board effort continuously to evaluate and better its teaching productivity in the same way virtually all of them appraise their research output. /Emphasis added./
>
> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> Everywhere, of course, there is lip service to the importance of good teaching; yet in few places is there really systematic and rigorous attention to reinforcing, rather than obstructing, the values institutions claim to uphold in this regard. The average faculty man's research gets criticized and evaluated; not so his teaching for his classroom is still regarded as sacrosanct.[2]

On the other hand, some well-informed, well-respected professionals in higher education take quite a different view, asserting that publish-or-perish as a governing principle in higher education is a myth, except in a few of the larger, more renowned institutions. Two who hold this view are A. M. Cartter and Logan Wilson, of the American Council on Education.

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[1] Theodore Caplow and Reece J. McGee, op. cit., p. 82.

[2] Logan Wilson, "The Professor and His Roles," Improving College Teaching, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967) Calvin B. T. Lee, Ed., p. 104.

Cartter says

> Another aspect of faculty attitude is reflected in the publish-or perish syndrome. A recent review of data for three fields of study revealed that about 90 percent of all major publications (books, articles in leading professional journals) originated in the top twenty-five Ph.D.-granting departments in each field. At the other extreme, a quarter of the doctorate-granting departments turn out less than one article a year. *Such evidence suggests that, except in a small number of leading universities, publish-or-perish is largely a myth popularized by the few poor teachers who, lacking the one credential for tenure appointment, did indeed perish when found lacking in the other.* (In the most publicized cases, however, "perish" is a complete misnomer: the faculty member involved usually took a job at a higher salary and rank in a more congenial environment.)[1] /Emphasis added./

Wilson comments as follows:

> . . . The much-discussed publish-or-perish dictum, however, is in actuality more fiction than fact in the average institution. More than a decade ago I made a detailed analysis of the published research of three institutional faculties in the university system with which I was then associated, and I found that on one campus 71 percent of the faculty had never published an article and 90 percent had not published a book; corresponding figures for the other two campuses were 40 percent and 90 percent, and 29 percent and 66 percent. More recently I had a tabulation made of the published writings of approximately a thousand faculty persons in a different university system and found that 32 percent had not published any articles and 71 percent had not published any books.
>
> Among the 2,000 cases in these two samples, let me add, were some individuals whose personal bibliographies exceed in volume the collective output of a sizeable proportion of all the rest of their colleagues. Since the data to which I refer were collected from large universities (both A. A. U. members) and not from small colleges, they lead me to conclude that allegations about the emphasis upon research and publication as the cause for neglect of teaching are unfounded. Other evidence I have seen reinforces my surmise that in all except a few leading institutions less than 10 percent of the faculty accounts for more than 90 percent of all published research. *In brief, if the publish-or-perish dictum were fact rather than fiction on most campuses, the average professor would be dead.*[2] /Emphasis added./

The foregoing conflicting opinions as to the bases for the promotion of faculty members in universities and colleges gives particular point and interest to two studies of fairly recent date, one of which deals with the faculty members' opinions as to the factors upon which promotions in their institutions are based, the second relating to the bases upon which institutions evaluate the teaching effectiveness of their faculties.

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[1] A. M. Cartter, "University Teaching and Excellence," *Improving College Teaching*, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967) Calvin B. T. Lee, Ed., p. 160.

[2] Logan Wilson, "The Professor and His Roles," *Improving College Teaching*, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967) Calvin B. T. Lee, Ed., p. 105.

### Faculty Opinions as to Factors Involved in Determining Promotion

Judging from evidence presented in a sampling study[1] of faculty members in four-year institutions in the United States, it would appear that the majority are of the opinion that promotion is dependent on other factors as well as on publishing and teaching ability. The study, done by the National Education Research Division, involved some 1,800 faculty members chosen as a sample throughout the United States. They were asked to indicate the importance of various factors on their chances for promotion as they saw it. The table below gives the results.

IMPORTANCE OF PUBLISHING

| | Percent |
|---|---|
| Great weight - publishing is definitely the primary factor in promotion and advancement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 22.9 |
| Some weight - publishing is important, but other factors are equally important . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 55.5 |
| Little or no weight - publishing is definitely less important than other factors . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 21.6 |
| | 100.0 |

IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING

| | |
|---|---|
| Great weight - teaching is definitely the primary factor in promotion and advancement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 24.9 |
| Some weight - teaching is important, but other factors are equally important . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 61.4 |
| Little or no weight - teaching is definitely less important than other factors . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 13.7 |
| | 100.0 |

It will be observed that more than half (55.5 percent) felt that other factors than publishing are equally important in determining promotions and a somewhat larger percentage (61.4 percent) felt that factors other than teaching ability are equally important in promotions. It is interesting to note, too, that approximately 1 in 4 (22.9 percent) of the respondents felt that publishing is the primary factor in promotion and advancement, and a slightly larger percentage (24.9 percent) felt that teaching ability is the primary factor in promotions and advancement. Just over 1 in 5 of the respondents felt that publishing is given little or no weight in promotions. Roughly 1 in 7 (13.7 percent) felt that teaching is given little or no weight in promotions.

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[1] "What the College Faculty Thinks," NEA Journal (April, 1966), p. 48.

## Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness

Most institutions assert that teaching effectiveness is a major factor in selection of faculty members and in their promotion. But the study of institutional practices in the evaluation of teaching effectiveness by the American Council on Education (1966) indicates that the evaluation is largely based upon an informal, non-systematic approach.

Based upon returns from 1,110 two- and four-year undergraduate colleges and universities throughout the United States, the study revealed that the most frequently used sources of information in evaluation of teaching effectiveness was: (1) departmental chairman evaluation, (2) dean evaluation, (3) colleagues' opinions, (4) scholarly research and publications, (5) informal student opinions (Table I below).

TABLE I

FREQUENCY OF USE OF VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION IN THE EVALUATION OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

| Source of Information | Used in all or Most Departments (%) | Not Used (%) |
|---|---|---|
| Chairman evaluation. . . . . . . . . . . | 85.1 | 3.4 |
| Dean evaluation. , . . . . . . . . . . . | 82.3 | 5.8 |
| Colleagues' opinions , , , . . . . . . . | 48.9 | 8.7 |
| Scholarly research and publications. , | 43.8 | 21.6 |
| Informal student opinions. . . , , . . . | 41.2 | 9.6 |
| Grade distributions . . . . . . . . . | 28.0 | 37.4 |
| Course syllabi and examinations. . . . | 26.4 | 28.0 |
| Committee evaluation . . . . . . . . . . | 25.1 | 52.4 |
| Student examination performance.. . . . | 19.6 | 35.8 |
| Self-evaluation or report. . . . . . . | 16.3 | 57.2 |
| Classroom visits . . . . . . . . . . . | 14.0 | 39.5 |
| Systematic student ratings . . . . . . | 12.4 | 47.6 |
| Enrollment in elective courses . . . . | 11.0 | 49.9 |
| Long-term follow-up of students. . . . | 10.2 | 47.1 |
| Alumni opinions . . . . . . . . . . . | 9.9 | 46.8 |

Source: Completed questionnaires from 1,110 academic deans

As Astin and Lee point out, since classroom visitation is reported as being in use in all or most departments of only a minority of the reporting institutions (14.0 percent), "it follows that, even though the dean, the department chairman, and professional colleagues have the final say about a professor's teaching ability, their evaluations must be based on the opinions of others."[1] Astin and Lee draw from Table I the following significant inference:

> It is clear from the data in Table I /Table I/ that the professor's scholarly research and publication - not information

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[1] Alexander W. Astin and Calvin B. T. Lee, "Current Practices in the Evaluation and Training of Teachers," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 298.

> based on classroom visits, systematic student ratings, student performance on examinations, and similar sources - are currently the primary considerations in evaluating his teaching ability.[1]

Evaluation practices in the several types of institutions. Table II shows the extent to which each of the several sources of information used in evaluating teaching effectiveness is used by the eight different types of colleges included in the foregoing study (i.e., junior colleges, teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and the following colleges or schools within universities: arts and science, education, engineering, business, agriculture).

In each of the eight types of colleges, chairman evaluation and dean evaluation rank either first or second. It will be observed that junior colleges rely more heavily on classroom visits, long-term follow-up, and course syllabi and examinations as a basis for evaluation of teaching effectiveness than do any other of the respondent colleges.

The data in Table II reveal also that colleges within the universities rank scholarly research and publication a close third among sources of information (following evaluations by chairmen and deans) while classroom visitation is ranked uniformly low (from 2.0 percent in the arts and science college to 8.7 percent in the college of engineering).

It is of interest to note that classroom visitation is used by a higher percentage of junior colleges (42.2 percent) and teachers colleges (25.8 percent) than any other of the eight types of colleges within the universities. Classroom visits are used least in the colleges operating within the universities.

Systematic student ratings are reportedly used more often in the colleges of business (20.6 percent) and agriculture (26.5 percent) than the other types of colleges in the universities. They are used least in the teachers colleges (4.9 percent).

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[1] Ibid., p. 298.

### TABLE II

### FREQUENCY WITH WHICH VARIOUS SOURCES OF EVALUATIVE INFORMATION ARE USED IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

| Source of Information | Percent Reporting Use in All or Most Departments | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Liberal | University Colleges | | | | |
| | Junior Colleges (N=128) | Teachers Colleges (N=133) | Arts Colleges (N=484) | Arts and Sciences (N=110) | Education (N=48) | Engineering (N=109) | Business (N=65) | Agriculture (N=33) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Grade distributions . . . . . . . . . | 30.6 | 27.7 | 36.0 | 15.5 | 9.3 | 18.5 | 19.4 | 15.3 |
| Classroom visits . . . . . . . . . . | 42.2 | 25.8 | 9.8 | 2.0 | 4.4 | 8.7 | 5.2 | 3.0 |
| Long-term follow-up of students . . | 26.1 | 6.2 | 9.9 | 1.0 | 9.1 | 13.5 | 1.6 | 9.4 |
| Scholarly research and publication. | 4.2 | 34.1 | 36.6 | 70.0 | 63.8 | 72.9 | 75.0 | 56.3 |
| Chairman evaluation . . . . . . . . | 65.8 | 89.6 | 82.2 | 98.2 | 91.3 | 92.7 | 88.7 | 93.9 |
| Dean evaluation . . . . . . . . . . | 82.7 | 80.5 | 83.5 | 71.8 | 91.7 | 80.4 | 89.1 | 84.4 |
| Colleagues' opinions . . . . . . . | 29.2 | 34.9 | 50.6 | 62.0 | 48.9 | 53.8 | 71.9 | 46.9 |
| Committee evaluation . . . . . . . | 15.7 | 17.3 | 28.9 | 30.8 | 28.9 | 23.3 | 30.0 | 6.3 |
| Student examination performance . . | 21.6 | 16.2 | 24.7 | 12.9 | 4.6 | 15.5 | 20.0 | 9.4 |
| Systematic student ratings . . . . | 16.1 | 4.9 | 11.2 | 11.3 | 13.0 | 14.0 | 20.6 | 26.5 |
| Informal student opinions . . . . . | 33.6 | 28.0 | 47.2 | 35.0 | 48.9 | 42.5 | 47.6 | 28.1 |
| Course syllabi and examinations . . | 37.0 | 28.6 | 29.4 | 5.9 | 11.1 | 22.8 | 22.6 | 39.4 |
| Enrollment in elective courses. . . | 6.8 | 7.8 | 14.0 | 11.5 | 2.3 | 8.8 | 14.8 | 3.2 |
| Alumni opinions . . . . . . . . . . | 8.2 | 8.7 | 11.2 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 13.3 | 16.7 | 9.4 |
| Self-evaluation or report . . . . . | 22.3 | 14.8 | 15.4 | 11.0 | 27.3 | 11.9 | 26.3 | 12.9 |

## Assignment of Staff as Related to Improvement of Instruction

One of the criticisms most often made of colleges and universities in recent years is that teaching, particularly undergraduate teaching, is being neglected - sacrificed to research and service; that increasingly teaching is being left to graduate assistants who, it is alleged, are inexperienced and largely unsupervised. Such a blanket indictment seems to gain force and invite credence by frequent repetition.

Yet from our observation of the colleges and universities in Oregon, it seems clearly evident that the flight from teaching, if such there has been, has not occurred in the smaller colleges. In these, the teachers are where they've always been - in the classroom, busier perhaps, with more students to teach than formerly, perhaps more harried, but unmistakably there in the classroom. Teaching continues in the smaller colleges to be the paramount concern of the staff.

In the universities, the emphasis has traditionally been somewhat different than in the smaller colleges. The universities, with thriving graduate and advanced graduate programs, are concerned with teaching, research, and service. In recent years, a number of forces have had an impact upon the extent to which professors in our universities are engaged in teaching of undergraduate courses, particularly the survey-type, lower-division courses in which many students get their first taste of college life.

1. Professors in the universities, particularly those having responsibilities in the graduate schools, on the average are teaching fewer hours than they did fifteen or twenty years ago. This development is an aspect of the professor's sharing in the generally increasing abundance of our society - something akin to the 40-hour week in business and industry - and similar trends. As an aside, it is interesting to reflect, as Gerard Piel, publisher of the Scientific American, pointed out several years ago, that if we had continued with the 60-hour week, we would at the time of his writing have had 27,000,000 unemployed.

   The lightened teaching load does not, for most professors, mean more leisure. What it means, in some instances, is that the professor has more time now to prepare better for his classes, to teach better, to research more adequately, and to write on the subject of his teaching and research, if he is so inclined. In this trend, the public institutions have followed the lead of the well-endowed independent universities, which moved to a reduced teaching load in the conviction that free time was essential to effective teaching.

   In other instances, it means that the professor is carrying a substantial load of administrative work incident to departmental or all-campus faculty obligations, or is occupied with other non-teaching functions important to the university.

2. The universities have far more graduate students than they formerly did, and for many professors in the universities the increased load of graduate students necessarily reduces the time they can spend in undergraduate teaching. As our demands for trained people at the graduate level have increased enormously in education, government, business, industry, and in every aspect of

our lives, we have looked to our universities to produce them. Obedient to this societal demand, the universities have expanded, and expanded again, their graduate schools. And despite their efforts, they are still objects of the criticism that they are not turning out a sufficient number of Ph.D.'s to meet the demand in some fields.

It must be obvious that if senior professors are required by the demands of society to spend more time teaching graduate courses, they inevitably will have less time for undergraduate teaching, particularly the survey-type lower-division courses.

3. Government, business, and industry are increasingly relying upon senior university professors for consultant help in fields in which professors are recognized experts. The brainpower in our universities has come to be a major resource to all aspects of our economic life and to government. Business, industry, agriculture, government, the professions - all draw upon the special expertise of our professors. Participation in these research and service activities in the practical world has its advantages to the university professor, too, not the least of which is that it permits him to maintain a continuing and close touch with the realities of the world to which his theories of the classroom relate.

The foregoing developments present the universities with a difficult problem: How can they react responsibly to the pressures society has placed upon them that require them to give more time to graduate research and teaching and at the same time continue to serve equally well, or better than formerly, the increasing numbers of undergraduate students? The universities have hit upon the use of "teaching assistants" as a partial answer to this dilemma. These are graduate or advanced graduate students, some of them young, many of them very promising, who are paid to teach part-time while pursuing graduate work at the university. Some have had prior college or university teaching experience as regular members of other colleges or universities. Many are looking forward, following completion of their doctoral work, to a career in college teaching. Some are gifted teachers, and all who are employed as teaching assistants are judged to be competent by the department in which they are asked to teach.

Functioning as a teaching assistant can represent for these students a significant part of their preparation for the future. Whether this potential for attaining meaningful, creative experience as a teaching assistant is realized depends upon the department. Some departments offer the teaching assistant the rewarding experience of functioning as a professional among professionals, with the opportunity, on a systematic basis, of sharing with full-time faculty the thrill and challenge of exploring together more creative ways of developing an optimum teaching-learning environment for undergraduate students. Other departments never fully develop this potential for their teaching assistants, with a resultant loss to the teaching assistants and the students they serve.

## Improving the Quality of Service Among Teaching Assistants

As to the improvement of the quality of service among teaching assistants, two questions suggest themselves: (1) What can be done in the universities to secure the highest calibre teaching assistants? (2) What can be done to help teaching assistants perform more effectively?

Securing the Highest Calibre Teaching Assistants. One of the most direct means of securing high calibre teaching assistants is to make the teaching assistantship competitive (in financial return) with fellowships and research assistantships. There is some evidence in the sciences that the most able graduate students tend to be drawn toward fellowships or research assistantships more than toward teaching assistantships. This seems to be so because of two factors: (1) Fellowships or graduate research assistantships tend to pay more, and in the case of research assistantships, they offer 12-month employment more frequently than do teaching assistantships, (2) The student with a fellowship or a research assistantship is usually able to push ahead more rapidly toward the fulfillment of degree requirements, for fellowships often do not require the student to return any service to the institution and, in the case of the research assistantship, the research work undertaken is often the avenue by which the student meets the doctoral dissertation requirements. The teaching assistant, on the other hand, is being paid for services rendered to the institution which, while potentially useful to the student as teaching experience, often do not move him toward completion of degree requirements.

Consequently, given a choice, students generally prefer a fellowship or research assistantship to a teaching assistantship. Harold Orlans, of the Brookings Institution, in a study of the effects of federal programs in higher education in 36 colleges and universities, found that "chairmen of major science departments were widely agreed that, at present, it is the poorer and not the best graduate students who are likely to be teaching assistants."[1] However, in the case of the humanities, the opposite appeared from Orlans' study to be true. In the humanities, teaching assistantships were awarded to the best students, for it was expected that they would become teachers, not researchers. Orlans suggested that teaching assistantships would be more competitive with fellowships if there were available summer research stipends for teaching assistants, and if fellowship holders were required to teach part time.

A study made at the University of Oregon just over two years ago revealed that, in the fall of 1965, of the more than 2,800 students registered for graduate credit, 486 held teaching assistantships, 172 were research assistants, and more than 155 received fellowships. A study involving the opinions of seven department heads, in departments having fellowships, research assistantships, and teaching assistantships to award, indicated that it was the opinion of these department heads that graduate students, given a choice of the three types of assistance, would rank them in the foregoing order as to student preference. These department heads further reported that they tended to offer any available fellowships to their most able students.

Induction and Supervision of Teaching Assistants. More systematic and orderly programs for inducting and supervising teaching assistants by regular faculty members need to be established. Teaching assistantships are too much regarded as temporary paid employment and not sufficiently as an important teaching-learning laboratory for apprentice teachers. This is not to suggest that there are not now, in the universities, examples of all that is good in the teaching assistant-full time faculty member relationship. There is, in some departments. But it is spotty and lacks the consistency that a soundly organized institutional program, department by department, and school by school, should manifest.

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[1] Harold Orlans, The Effects of Federal Programs in Higher Education, A Study of 36 Universities and Colleges (Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1962), p. 71.

A uniformly well-organized teaching-assistant-as-an-apprentice-teacher program in all departments of the universities would do more than any other single thing to improve the level of teaching by teaching assistants. We are confident that the teaching assistants would, themselves, welcome such attention from regular faculty members.

Supervised Teaching Experience for Prospective College Teachers. As the principal producers of college and university teachers, the universities ought to consider the development of programs of supervised teaching experience for those graduate students whose career goal is college and university teaching. In most fields, the Ph. D. degree is considered the sine qua non for college and university teachers. In Ph. D. preparation programs, the universities place major emphasis upon developing the research capability of their students, but rarely on developing the teaching ability of the Ph. D. candidate. The student is given the guidance and supervision of a dissertation advisor and a dissertation committee to oversee him in the development of his research project. No similar attention is given to providing him with supervised teaching experience.

In part, this stems from a feeling in some quarters in the academic community that the attainment of the Ph. D. degree is sufficient evidence of one's capacity for teaching since, these same people hold, command of one's teaching field is the principal, if not the sole, requirement for becoming an effective teacher. Moreover, in these same quarters, any effort to establish a supervised teaching program for prospective college teachers is seen, as one writer has put it, as "an intemperate eagerness in the colleges of education to develop courses in methods of college teaching."[1] Yet, there is reason to believe that attention to developing teaching abilities is at least as important to the teaching performance of future college teachers as is the development of research capabilities.

Summary - Teaching Assistants. It seems evident that if the teaching assistantship is to become as effective an instrument in providing high quality undergraduate instruction as it ought to, continuing consideration must be given by the universities to:

- Increasing the stipend for teaching assistantships, making them competitive with the better fellowships and research assistantships.
- Making of the teaching assistantship not just temporary paid employment for the graduate student, but a teaching-learning opportunity in which the teaching assistant is provided a stimulating opportunity for working with senior colleagues (full-time faculty) in experimenting and innovating in the application of the best that is known about teaching.

Systematic attention to these two requirements in the upgrading of the teaching assistantship is likely to be given only when the appropriate administrative officials stimulate faculty interest in this matter, and as the institutions are able to allocate financial resources to this need.

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[1] Caplow and McGee, op. cit., p. 231.

## Proper Induction into Teaching of Inexperienced New Faculty Members

If there is validity to the view that teaching assistants would be helped in the development of teaching arts and skills by an opportunity, as a part of an organized, systematic program, to work closely with an established, competent instructor, it is reasonable to believe that the newly employed full-time faculty member who is without teaching experience would be similarly benefited.

## Encouragement of Senior Professors to Teach at the Undergraduate Level

It is not true, as is sometimes supposed, that senior professors in our universities spend the great preponderance of their time in research, and that what teaching they do is all at the graduate or advanced graduate level.

Actually, in the two state system universities, it is not uncommon for senior professors to teach one or more lower-division (freshman or sophomore) courses, either at the professor's own volition, or because departmental policy, developed by the members of the department conjointly, requires it. We do not have at hand the complete information as to the extent of this practice, department by department, for the two universities, but we have accumulated information enough to know that it is a common one.

A number of the departments in which senior professors, as a matter of course, teach one or more lower-division courses, express the view that, since the student's first contact and experience with the department occurs at that level, it is to the advantage of the department to have its finest teachers teaching these courses - teachers with the capacity to excite the interest and capture the attention of able freshman or sophomore students who may be thus encouraged to major with the department.

As we have earlier noted, interest in teaching at the lower-division level is encouraged, too, when the faculty sees tangible evidence that such teaching is considered important to the institution, and when effectively done, is suitably recognized by the institution.

## Providing Needed Sub-professional Help for Faculty Members

An interesting and significant development in many professional fields (e.g., medicine, dentistry, engineering) in recent years has been the recognition of the need for the training of an increasingly large number of "aides" of one sort or another to perform some of the work formerly performed by the professional (doctor, dentist, engineer), but which can be performed equally well by one with less training. This permits the professional to stretch his work capacity. In medicine we see this in the increasing numbers of medical technologists of all kinds; in dentistry, in the form of dental assistants and dental hygienists; in engineering, in various kinds of engineering technologists (i.e., mechanical, electrical, civil).

In college and university teaching this movement is reflected in the increasing use of teaching assistants and research assistants. But what has long been a problem is the inadequate budgetary appropriations for clerical and secretarial personnel, which requires highly qualified professors and administrative officers in our institutions to perform what are clearly clerical and secretarial functions that can more effectively be performed by properly trained persons of much less preparation.

## Special Awards for Meritorious Teaching

Special awards for teaching excellence are not uncommon in American higher education. Such awards are designed to give special institutional recognition for extraordinary teaching merit to one or a very limited number of faculty members annually.

The American Council on Education survey of colleges and universities, earlier referred to in this report, found that in 1966, 36.1 percent of the responding deans from 1,110 colleges and universities, reported that their institutions gave such an outstanding teaching award.[1] The survey further showed that the colleges (i.e., liberal arts, education, business, architecture, engineering, agriculture) within the universities more often use this form of recognition of teaching merit than do junior colleges, teachers colleges, or liberal arts colleges not affiliated with a university (Table III).

It will be observed that within the universities reporting, the following percentages of colleges or schools reported granting teaching awards: arts and sciences, 62.3 percent; education, 52.1 percent; engineering, 55.1 percent; business, 61.9 percent; agriculture, 72.7 percent. Only 13.3 percent of the junior colleges, 26.3 percent of the teachers colleges, and 29.8 percent of the liberal arts colleges reported making such awards.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS HAVING OUTSTANDING TEACHER AWARDS[a]

| | |
|---|---|
| Junior colleges | 13.3 |
| Teachers colleges | 26.3 |
| Liberal arts colleges | 29.8 |
| Universities: | |
| 1. Arts and sciences | 62.3 |
| 2. Education | 52.1 |
| 3. Engineering | 55.1 |
| 4. Business | 61.9 |
| 5. Agriculture | 72:7 |
| Total | 36.1 |

[a] Based on completed questionnaires from 1,110 academic deans.

Referring to practices among institutions granting teaching merit awards, Astin and Lee comment:

> The nature of the awards varied greatly. Cash prizes ranged from $100 to $4,000, with a sizable number giving $1,000. The most generous award was a year's leave with pay. Gold watches, plaques, scrolls, and medals were sometimes given along with cash prizes. One institution reported that it gave its annual recipient a plaque

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[1] Astin and Lee, op. cit., pp. 307-308.

> and, through a special fund, his choice of $200 worth of books for the college library, each containing the note that they were purchased in his honor as professor of the year. Student recognition usually took the form of designating, through a student poll, the "Best Teacher," "Man of the Year," "Professor of Greatest Influence on Students," "Outstanding Teacher," "Professor of the Year," and "Top Prof." Several schools recognized their outstanding teachers by naming them as university lecturer of the year, by asking them to speak at convocation or some other occasion, or by honoring them at commencement.
>
> The manner of selection varied so much that it is not possible to make any generalization except that most of the respondents indicated that students were involved in the process; selection by faculty ranked next, then selection by administration, and finally selection by alumni.[1]

Included among the colleges and universities with a teaching award are the two state system universities. Oregon State University for a number of years has made annually a $1,000 award to some faculty member selected as exemplifying the highest order of teaching merit. The University of Oregon makes two $1,000 grants annually for teaching merit (Ersted Awards).

## The Merit Award Program in Oregon (Mosser Plan)

So far as we know, one of the most extensive programs for recognizing merit in undergraduate teaching was the merit award program established by the 1965 Oregon Legislative Assembly. We have included a complete review of that program in the appendix, pp.117-129. We present here only the highlights of that experience.

The 1965 Legislature appropriated some half million dollars to be used during the 1965-1967 biennium by the institutions of the State System of Higher Education for "grants to teachers of undergraduate courses." The only guidance given the state system institutions by the legislature as to the method of distribution of the funds was included in the budget report of subcommittee No. 4 of the Ways and Means Subcommittee to the 53rd Legislative Assembly, which stated (April 29, 1965) that the "Board of Higher Education is instructed to distribute this fund in accordance with the following criteria:

1. The fund shall be distributed equally between the two years of the 1965-1967 biennium.

2. The fund shall be distributed in multiples of one thousand among Oregon State University, University of Oregon, Portland State College, Oregon College of Education, Southern Oregon College, Eastern Oregon College, and Oregon Technical Institute in accordance with the F. T. E. of undergraduate students enrolled.

3. Grants shall be nonrecurring, but a faculty member may qualify for consideration each year, irrespective of previous grants.

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 308.

4. To qualify for consideration for a grant, a faculty member must teach an average of two 3-credit courses at the undergraduate level during at least two terms of the academic year for which he is being considered.

5. Students shall be involved in either the nomination or selection of grant winners. They may be involved in both nomination and selection."

The subcommittee said further that it:

> . . . anticipates that faculty members will be asked to propose plans for selecting grant winners, the plans to be approved by the Board of Higher Education consistent with the above criteria. Such plans may vary among institutions. In the event an institution declines to participate, the institutional share of the fund shall be distributed proportionately among the remaining institutions. Any portion of the fund not used for the expressed purpose shall revert to the General Fund.

While the Board of Higher Education recognized that the subcommittee's recommendations had not the force of law, the Board thought it useful to be guided by the general intent of the subcommittee's declaration, since no other legislative directive provided as clear a statement of intent.

State System Guidelines Developed. To develop guidelines to give direction to the institutions in the development of their plans for the distribution of the merit awards for teaching excellence, the name given to the above awards, the Chancellor appointed a committee of deans of instruction or deans of faculty from the several institutions, with the Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs as chairman. The interinstitutional committee developed guidelines, included here as Appendix A (pp. 118-120) which were issued August 26, 1965, and taken to the Board of Higher Education, October 25-26, 1965. The general tenor of the committee's view as to the role to be played by the institutions in the development of institutional plans, and as to the general purpose of these proposed awards for excellence in undergraduate teaching may be gleaned from the following excerpt from the recommended guidelines:

I. The development of the merit award plans for the several institutions should be left to the institutions.

   A. The success of the merit award plan in each of the institutions is dependent upon the degree to which the plan is accepted by the faculty.

   B. Faculty acceptance of the plan is dependent in large measure upon the extent to which the faculty has participated in the development of the plan and the extent to which the final plan adopted by the institution is seen by the faculty to reflect the views of the faculty.

II. The plans developed by the institutions, while reflecting institutional differences, should be devised to achieve, as nearly as may be, the ultimate ends which the merit award program is designed to serve. These ends are understood by the deans of faculty to be:

A. To signify the great importance attached to high quality undergraduate teaching by the legislature, the State Board of Higher Education and the institutions of the state system.

B. To reward, by monetary grants, those faculty members who devote a significant portion of their time to undergraduate teaching, and who have demonstrated an uncommon ability as teachers of undergraduate students.

C. To encourage faculty members of outstanding teaching ability to remain in undergraduate teaching, or to return to undergraduate teaching, by providing them with incentives to offset incentives offered by research and other non-teaching activities in higher education.

Reduction in Amount of Funds Available for the Merit Award Program. Whereas the amount appropriated by the legislature for the merit award program for the 1965-1967 biennium was $500,000, that sum was reduced to $200,000 by agreement of the Board of Higher Education and the Emergency Board, in order to make $300,000 available for other uses in higher education. Thus, $100,000 was available for distribution in support of the merit award program in each year of the biennium.

Participation in the Merit Award Program, 1965-66 and 1966-67. Of the seven state system institutions eligible to participate in the merit award program, five (OSU, PSC, SOC, OCE, and EOC) participated in 1965-66. Following faculty discussion and vote, the University of Oregon and the Oregon Technical Institute declined to participate in the program. The funds that would otherwise have gone to their faculties were distributed among the five participating institutions.

The sums received by each participating institution in 1965-66 were as follows:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OSU - | $47,000 | OCE - | $7,000 |
| PSC - | 30,000 | EOC - | 5,000 |
| SOC - | 11,000 | | |

In 1966-67, only one institution (PSC) elected to participate in the merit award program. The funds that were available for the other six institutions, had they participated, were returned to the general fund of the state. PSC received $30,000, the same as in 1965-66.

Attitude of the Institutions Toward the Merit Award Program. We leave to the appendix (pp.122-129) a fuller discussion of the reasons for institutional dissatisfaction with the merit award plan, contenting ourselves here with a brief statement of the principal points of dissatisfaction.

1. Faculties were concerned over what they considered legislative involvement in matters which the faculties felt should be internal to the institutions.

2. Faculties were unwilling to accept the imputation they felt to be implicit in the merit award plan, namely, that the institutions were doing nothing of their own volition to reward and to encourage effective undergraduate teaching.

3. Faculties were of the view that the awarding of money to individual professors as "prizes" is an inappropriate and ineffective way of improving undergraduate instruction; that if the aim is to reward professors for effective undergraduate teaching, such rewards should be reflected in salary increases rather than in "prize" money.

4. Faculties were concerned that the merit award plan would create an undesirable divisiveness in the faculty, destructive of faculty morale.

5. Many faculty members were of the view that the merit award plan for teaching excellence was based upon what they considered an invalid assumption, namely, that it is possible to measure teaching effectiveness with sufficient precision to make the selection of award winners something more than an exercise in futility.

6. Faculties felt that if special legislatively appropriated funds are to be set aside, as the merit award program funds were, for encouraging the improvement of undergraduate instruction (as distinguished from rewarding teaching excellence, which was the aim of the merit award plan), there are more effective ways of using the funds than distributing them as "prize" money among faculty members.

7. Faculties felt that instruction - undergraduate and graduate - is of a piece; that it is unwise and indefensible to single out undergraduate teaching for special legislative recognition when graduate instruction is, at least in the universities, considered of equal importance.

Why the Merit Award Program Was Opposed Even Though the Institutions Do Not Object to Recognizing Merit Through Salary and Other Special Awards. It may reasonably be asked why, when institutions allege they already are recognizing teaching excellence through (1) distribution of salary funds on a merit basis, and (2) special awards (as at UO and OSU) for teaching excellence, the faculties should take umbrage at the legislature's well-intentioned efforts to recognize teaching excellence by proposing the distribution of $200,000 among selected faculty members identified by the institutions for their excellence in undergraduate teaching.

Two considerations explain the faculties' seeming inconsistency.

1. The element of publicity and its impact on faculty morale. Faculty salary funds are distributed, as a matter of policy in the state system, on the basis of merit. What makes this acceptable, whereas the merit award program was not, is that in the former, no public announcement is made as to which faculty members receive merit salary increments, or the amounts they receive. The merit award plan was of such a character, however, that the faculties felt compelled to announce publicly the recipients of the awards, which raised the spectre of faculty divisiveness, based upon dissatisfaction with the basis upon which the merit awards were made.

2. The element of numbers and selectivity. Although the two universities do make merit awards for teaching excellence, annually, (one at OSU, two at UO), these do not lead to invidious comparisons among faculty members as did the merit award program. For if only one, or even two,, from among a faculty of five or six hundred members are singled out for honoring annually, the remaining faculty members generally feel no sense of loss or deprivation at not being selected. The faculty member who does not receive a teaching award comforts himself, if he thinks about the matter at all, with the thought that there are several hundred other faculty members who were also passed over in the selection, and that he, like any one of the other hundreds who were not thus honored, may well have been second or third or fourth on the list from which the winner was selected. But when 70 or 75 faculty members are to be singled out for teaching merit and given, with some fanfare, awards of $1,000, the faculty member who does not receive an award feels too much exposed.

From experience in Oregon, it would appear that faculties find merit in the offering of one or a very limited number of awards for teaching excellence, but are strongly opposed to having used as "prize" money substantial funds which faculties feel ought to have been used to augment the merit salary funds distributed through normal institutional channels.

Whatever may be said concerning the efficacy of the merit award program as a means of rewarding teaching excellence, it unquestionably generated a great deal of discussion in the state system institutions concerning teaching excellence, how to identify it, and how to promote it.

## Institutional Evaluation of Instruction

The academic community is unanimous on at least two matters:

- The evaluation of classroom teaching is a complex and difficult problem.
- Few institutions have any systematic plan for evaluating teaching effectiveness as a basis for salary, tenure, and promotion decisions.

The complexities of evaluation stem from what have been termed "gaps in our knowledge." And the widespread understanding in the academic world of the limitations of the state of the art of teacher evaluation has made college and university administrators wary of - and faculties opposed to - administrative attempts to evaluate teaching effectiveness systematically as a basis for compensation and promotion of college and university professors.

We think it not profitable in this report to deal in any detail with the kinds of "knowledge gaps" that harry the researcher endeavoring to develop means that are both valid and reliable for evaluating instruction. Suffice it only to say that they center around such areas as the following:

1. The definition of what college and university instructors do.
2. The ability of students to make valid ratings of teaching effectiveness.
3. The relationship of specific teacher behaviors upon student learning, which is one of the ultimate criteria of effectiveness.
4. The definition of the outcomes expected or the objectives being sought in each of the various subject matter areas.
5. The methods of measuring validly and reliably the outcomes of a course.[1]

Dewey Stuit,[2] of the University of Iowa, has suggested that, given the present state of knowledge concerning evaluation of teaching, researchers in our institutions could profitably concern themselves with such research studies as the following:

1. Faculty attitudes toward evaluation to determine why staff members are content to have the administration rely upon second-hand, fragmentary data in making decisions as to teaching effectiveness.
2. Measurement of changes in student behavior, on the assumption that one of the most important purposes of instruction is to change the student's behavior in some desired manner. This change may involve accumulation of knowledge in a given field, or the development of the ability to think critically and in a problem-solving manner in a given field, or it may involve changing of attitudes and appreciations.

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[1] McKeachie, op. cit., p. 32.

[2] Dewey B. Stuit, "Needed Research on the Evaluation of Instructional Effectiveness," The Appraisal of Teaching in Large Universities (Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1959), p. 51-55.

3. Means of developing better methods of observation and rating, on the assumption that while data as to student achievement will continue to be of importance in evaluating teaching, the chief hope of the future seems to lie "in the more efficient use of supervisors and teams of experts in making observations and ratings of teachers in action."

4. Relationship between scholarly productivity and quality of teaching. Is there a significant correlation between scholarly productivity and teaching ability? Some assert there is and others assert that the two may be quite unrelated in a given individual.

5. What is meant by good teaching.

The layman may find puzzling this difficulty in establishing a systematic administrative evaluation of teaching effectiveness as a basis for compensation, tenure, and promotion decisions. Surely, the deans and department heads must know what good teaching is! Surely, deans and department heads can visit classrooms and by first-hand observation judge the teaching effectiveness of individual professors!

To the latter observation we respond from personal experience and observation, as well as from testimony from many institutions in the United States: In most institutions, the only way in which the classroom doors could be opened by department heads and deans intent upon evaluating instruction and the instructor as a basis for salary, promotion, and tenure decisions is by force. And evaluation under such circumstances would be meaningless, to say nothing of its absolutely devastating effect upon morale of the faculty.

The resistance of faculty - and administrators, generally too - to this effort at systematic observation and evaluation of instruction and instructors, stems from the feeling on the part of both faculty and administration that the knowledge gaps referred to on the preceding page do in fact exist; that such knowledge gaps make invalid and unreliable efforts by the administrator (dean or department head) to evaluate by direct classroom observation the effectiveness of instruction.

Some researchers have suggested that a meaningful subjective evaluation could be made of teaching effectiveness if a committee of knowledgeable colleagues could visit the classroom - not once but several times over a period of time. But even if this approach were, in fact, proven to be a valid and reliable one (and some researchers with impeccable credentials assert that it could not be until the present knowledge gaps referred to on the preceding page are filled), the cost of such evaluations would be prohibitive. Neill Megaw, chairman of Committee C on College and University Teaching, Research, and Publication, of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), suggests that a continuing investment in this kind of colleague committee observation of instruction, to the extent of about 3 percent of the total faculty salary costs, might possibly lead to the development of a suitable instrument in a specially defined institutional committee on instruction.[1]

Of course, administrative officers do make judgments as to professorial merit. They have to in distributing salary funds, in deciding who should be accorded indefinite tenure and who should be given promotion.

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[1] Neill Megaw, "The Dynamics of Evaluation," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 285.

But usually such decisions are made without any systematic, direct evaluation of teaching effectiveness by the dean or department head. What tends to happen is that the administrator judges the kinds of things that can be judged: how the individual is viewed by his colleagues, the individual's production in research, writing, faculty committee activity, positive and negative comments from students about the courses taught by the individual, and similar such evidences of merit or the lack of it.

Here we encounter an interesting paradox: Although teachers generally express themselves as feeling that teaching effectiveness should be an important factor in administrative decisions relating to compensation, tenure, and promotion, most faculties are unanimous in their opposition to systematic approaches to evaluation for these administrative purposes. They seem to prefer to have the administrator rely upon second-hand, and usually fragmentary, evidence in making his decisions.

Professors generally do not, however, oppose attempts at systematic evaluation of teaching when the data therefrom are to be used, not as a basis for salary and promotion decisions, but solely for the purpose of helping the professor to improve his teaching. Thus it is that in many institutions evaluations by students and colleagues are sought and welcomed by professors. The evaluation form developed at Oregon State University, for example, has found favor and is in use in a number of institutions in the west as a basis for assisting instructors to improve their interaction with students in the teaching-learning process.

Having made what may appear to the reader to be an almost unrelievedly negative report on the question of evaluation of instruction through visitation of deans and department heads to classrooms, I hasten to underscore the following points:

- The evaluation of teaching and improvement of instruction are not synonymous terms.

- The evaluation of teaching could be, but may not be, a useful step in the improvement of instruction. If the evaluation attempted is not valid or reliable, it is useless. And if valid and reliable, but accomplished in the face of faculty opposition, it is likely to have little impact, since to improve, a teacher must want to improve.

- Important steps can be taken by our colleges and universities to promote faculty interest in the improvement in teaching and to effect such improvement without our being able to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction with all of the precision that the educational researcher would like. It is to some of these activities looking to the improvement of instruction that we turn in the next section of this report.

## New Approaches to Learning

It is not our purpose, as the heading might imply, to identify - much less describe - all of the "new" approaches to learning that are in use or which are being experimented with in four-year colleges and universities.

What we wish to do here is to identify for the Board a sampling of these newer developments, some of which are to be found in state system institutions, and all of which are to be found in some colleges and universities in the United States. It is these kinds of developments that our institutions must continue to assess as to their relevancy for meeting more effectively the needs of the institutions. As we have noted elsewhere, some of the state system institutions have already in being a committee of the faculty, one of whose primary functions is to encourage educational change and experimentation.

Such committees must necessarily be alert to the kinds of newer developments sampled below, if they are to serve effectively as catalytic agents within the institutions for the improvement of instruction. But the existence of an institutional committee specifically charged with fomenting and encouraging instructional improvement does not absolve the departments and schools themselves from a continuing assessment of likely-looking newer developments. For it is ultimately and only within the departments themselves that some important kinds of change having an impact on instruction can occur.

We draw our sampling of new approaches from Baskin's work.[1] His book (Higher Education: Some Newer Developments) came into being in 1965 in response to an invitation to Baskin to prepare a study which would "present an overview of some of the newer developments in higher education . . ." and which would center on "key issues and concerns in higher education today," with the purpose to "inform and evaluate . . . to challenge and open up ideas."

1. The new colleges. Described is the development of several new colleges that "demonstrate several new or renewed trends in higher education," as follows: capturing some of the educational potential of small colleges without yielding "the undoubted virtue of large size;" searching for "integrity through some variant of the liberal arts or general education curriculum designed to insure against "undue specialization or fragmentation of educational experience," enriching instruction through automated instruction; emphasizing independent study; stressing internationalism through such means as area studies programs on campus and study programs abroad.

2. Organization for teaching and learning: the curriculum. Developments in the liberal arts colleges cited include: a focus on general education; the idea of a general major; education for world affairs; reduction in the number of course offerings; improvement of course content; independent study; study abroad programs; honors programs; systems concept in organization of student's learning experiences; work and field experience.

   In the professional schools (e.g., business, education, engineering, etc.): an increase in liberal arts instruction; core requirements for related studies; reduction in specialized (professional) instruction; utilization of offerings by business, industry, and government groups.

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[1] Samuel Baskin, Higher Education: Some Newer Developments (New York, N. Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1965).

3. The student on his own: independent study. Independent study; using groups in independent study; new arrangements in the use of instructor-student contact time; interterm plans; seminars to develop initiative; individual study in the laboratory.

4. The abler student. Approaches to identification, recruitment and support of abler students; flexibility in existing arrangements, such as: independent study, acceleration, use of new media, credit by examination.

5. The new media. Systems approach to planning for and using media; televised instruction, programed learning; instructional films; language laboratories; course developments; recorded courses; use of combinations of media; the single film concept; research films; media tests and examinations; audio tape; moderate-cost video tape recorders; large-screen television.

6. Facilities and learning: an overview of developments: Baskin describes some examples of institutional efforts to deal with the four issues around which Baskin says the most vital research and development work on college and university facilities today revolves: technology, flexibility, utilization of space, and the sociopsychological aspects of education.

7. Extending the educational environment: the community as a resource for learning. Work programs; research and study programs; service programs; foreign experience; combinations of the foregoing programs in selected institutions.

8. Improving college teaching and administration. Keeping abreast of content in subject matter fields; understanding students - their abilities, limitations, motivations; organizing learning opportunities in keeping with sound learning theory; in-service programs in administration; administrative internships.

9. The college calendar: what kind of a school year? The year-round calendar: variations and problems.

10. Interinstitutional cooperation. Various forms of multilateral and bilateral organizations for promoting interinstitutional cooperation are described

It is apparent that Baskin's discussion touches only a sampling, albeit an extensive one, of the newer developments in higher education. Omitted, for example, is any reference to college and university programs for the disadvantaged.

Joseph Axelrod,[1] examining the first half of the decade of the sixties, asserts that the first and most significant trend on American campuses during the 1960's has been the "deconforming of students," and the second, the "deconforming of curricula." By deconforming of students, Axelrod appears to have reference to the development of programs permitting greater flexibility in course programs for students made possible by the following kinds of developments: establishment of "honors programs," independent study programs, advanced placement programs; the concern of admissions offices for the "creative" student who may not meet the formalized admission standards, and for the disadvantaged. His reference to the "deconforming of the curriculum" appears to relate to efforts to "dequantify the curriculum" (lay less stress on grounding of the curriculum in the concept of number as the basis for degrees: class hours, grade points, credits and courses, semesters, quarters and trimesters, and more emphasis on what Axelrod calls the "college student's knowledge, in the fullest sense of the word"). He sees the two developments - "dequantifying the curriculum and perfecting knowledge-assessing scales" - as "moving toward one another, ready to join into a single movement," the emerging outlines of which are most clearly discernible in colleges and universities in Florida, Michigan, and New York, according to Axelrod.

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[1] Joseph Axelrod, "New Patterns of Internal Organization," Emerging Patterns in American Higher Education, Logan Wilson, ed. (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1965), pp. 52-53.

## The Place of New Technologies in the Teaching-Learning Equation

We single out for special comment the new technologies relating to teaching. Our reason for doing so is because of the blind faith commonly expressed in the teaching technologies as to the solution to our instructional problems and as at least a partial answer to the economic programs presented by the need to finance the vast increase in educational programs in recent years.

Each new technology or technological invention raises anew the hope that here is an instrument that promises both greater instructional efficiency and greater economy. In the 1920's and 1930's came radio and audio-visual materials (i.e., 16 mm. portable projector, films, tapes, slides); in the 1950's, educational television, programed instruction, and the teaching machine. In the 1960's, it's computer instruction programs that excite the imagination. And the end is not in sight. Invention follows invention as major industrial companies apply brains and money to the problems of education. Serving the needs of education is considered now to be one of the most important of the new growth industries.

But what are the implications of these technological instruments for instructional efficiency and economy?

If we ascribe to students a larger responsibility for working independently in the gathering of facts and other relevant information in their studies, preparatory to the evaluation of the meaning and the significance of this content with instructors and student colleagues, then educational television, teaching machines, language laboratories, programed learning, and the like all become valuable instruments in the student's independent study program. An increasing number of colleges and universities are using these materials in precisely this fashion. These technological developments can be important and useful allies in the educational process.

Some have objected to the depersonalized character of education sought through the use of these technological instruments. But viewed in another light, these instruments, paradoxically, may be seen to be the means of humanizing the educational process. For such mechanized or automated instruments free the teacher to concentrate on the aspects of education that have the most relevance for lasting good, namely, the encouragement in students of the development of analytical skills, attitudes, habits of mind, and understandings that will give them the means and incentive for continuing independently their education through a lifetime.

Can more mileage by gotten out of the college professor if these new techniques are employed (i.e., television, programed instruction, computer instruction)? The state system has had an appreciable amount of experience with interinstitutional television, and with the use of television within the institutions.

Television Instruction. State system experience with television, extending back to the early 1950's and including an extensive program of interinstitutional television courses beginning in 1955, leads to the conclusion that: the interinstitutional television teaching did not achieve economy in cost when compared with conventional teaching.[1] Since 1957, when the interinstitutional television program began, institutional experience with television indicates that televised courses have cost at least as much as conventional instruction. It should be emphasized, however, that the interinstitutional television teaching program was experimental in nature with the improvement of instruction as its main objective. Dr. Lallas commented further:

> Some of the televised courses were highly specialized offerings; these courses brought an enriched curriculum in course availability to students at other campuses but were generally low in enrollment and consequently costly per student. (The cost involved in setting up comparable courses, however, or even a new department on a different campus, would have been far in excess of the actual cost of using television to distribute a course from an institution where the specialized instructional program already existed.) The open-circuit system itself added to the cost per credit hour. It must also be noted that since there never was a total enrollment in a specific large multiple-section course, a precise, adequate test of cost per unit was not achieved.
>
> These facts notwithstanding, the future for interinstitutional television, as can best be judged at this time, suggests clearly that sufficient enrollment to achieve greater economy and to maintain a large scale program of courses will not be attained; further, sufficient improvement in the quality of instruction to warrant increased costs has not been demonstrated except for specific applications, related particularly to supplementation of the curricula of smaller institutions by their access, through television, to programs of larger institutions.

In concluding these brief comments on television, we draw again from Dr. Lallas, whom we paraphrase:

1. Apart from its use in offering of all or a portion of specified formal courses, television is especially useful in the enrichment of conventional instruction: for increased effectiveness in the use of audio-visual materials, for striking improvement in the use of demonstration-type lectures such as in chemistry or biology, for capturing phenomena of unique or current interest and value, and for concentrating many outstanding teachers in the classroom instantaneously and repeatedly.

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[1] This observation, together with all else on television education which follows, is taken from materials prepared by Dr. John Lallas, Director of the UO Office of Institutional Research, and Research Director in the interinstitutional television program 1957-1962. These materials appeared in a slightly different form in the post-high school study.

2. Television should not be oversold as a means of meeting teacher shortages. To do so would be naive. It can be used to an advantage, however, in making more effective assignment of faculty. It permits the wider use of the system's most outstanding teachers, encourages reassignment and redeployment of faculty for teaching in lower-division discussion sections and colloquies and low-enrollment upper-division courses and seminars, and encourages the use of video tape recording for instruction.

3. On the basis of experience with television, there is complete consensus in the state system institutions that "major emphasis in instructional television should be closed-circuit."

4. Although careful cost accounting thus far has not demonstrated that television teaching does decrease costs of education, continuing cost data for educational television should be maintained by the institutions to continue the test as to whether, when television is appropriately used, economies may not in time be shown.

Programed Instruction. As for programed instruction, the limited experience with the dental anatomy course in the Dental School, earlier referred to in this report, suggests that curricula in other schools and departments should be examined with a view to discovering whether there are not other basic courses that would lend themselves to this same treatment with the same happy result.

Computer Instruction. The principal emphasis on computer use has, to the present, been in terms of administrative and research use. We have made little use of computers for instructional purposes. Experience elsewhere suggests the wisdom of the state system institutions' seeking legislative funds in support of some experimental work in computer instruction.

## Putting Greater Responsibility on the Student to Learn

Let the words "improvement of instruction" be spoken, and the image that comes commonly to mind is likely to be the teacher in search of ways more efficiently to transmit his knowledge of the subject matter to the minds of his students.

Such an image is as inadequate as it is common. It fails to grasp the true essence of teaching and, hence, underplays the role and responsibility of the student in the teaching-learning process. As we have earlier noted, some of the resentment that is felt among some faculty members at the prospect of student evaluation of their instructors - particularly published evaluations - stems from the feeling that undue emphasis upon evaluation of teachers in this fashion causes students to minimize, or to overlook entirely, the responsibility of the student in the teaching-learning equation.

Teaching is more than the transmission of knowledge from teacher to student. And the measure of teaching efficiency is more than the measurement of the student's ability to regurgitate, upon cue, what has been poured into him by the teacher.

Learning is not a passive experience. If learning is to be efficient, the learner must be an active agent.

Students learn only from their own mental effort and activity. There is no royal road to learning. No vicarious means by which one may learn for another. Each stands in his own shoes - makes his own way - intellectually. Good teaching stimulates mental activity. The best teaching stimulates the student to self-directed seeking, the greatest reward of which is the expanding capacity to make one's own way as an increasingly independent agent in the intellectual world.

As has been said, "The function of teaching at the university level is to help the student to learn" - from the myriad sources open to an inquiring mind that has been trained to seek and appraise information. And the ultimate aim of college and university teaching must be to make the student effectively independent of his teachers, giving him both the capacity and the incentive for continuing - through a lifetime - an independent search for knowledge as his needs will demand. For however favored the college or university, it cannot hope to provide its students with a fund of knowledge sufficient to endure through a lifetime. What these institutions must do is to teach their students how to learn on their own, and stimulate in them an incentive for learning. For in a future in which change is likely to be the only constant, the individual who lacks either the capacity or the incentive for renewing continuously his educational capital will suffer the inestimable losses of an early and inexorable obsolescence.

In the idiom of John Gardner: "All too often we are giving young people cut flowers when we should be teaching them to grow their own plants. We are stuffing their heads with the products of earlier innovation rather than teaching them to innovate. We think of the mind as a storehouse to be filled rather than as an instrument to be used."[1]

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[1] John W. Gardner, Annual Report, Carnegie Corporation of New York, (New York, New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1962), p. 11.

We do not mean that the teacher does not have a significant role as a purveyor of knowledge. Nor that the teacher's only role is that of helping students to acquire techniques for independent study and learning. What we do mean is that we should not emphasize the first purpose to the exclusion of the second, and that we must be concerned institutionally with the teacher's impact upon a learning situation more complex than reflected in the image of the teacher as the active agent and the student as the passive recipient in the teaching-learning situation.

Students learn a great deal without the presence of a teacher. One who has been a serious student will consider the foregoing a banal redundancy. Yet, Commager, writing of the American scene, observes that:

> We still refuse to learn what Oxford and Cambridge, for example, have taken to heart, that lectures often interfere with learning, that professors cannot be expected to do all the teaching, and that a major part of education is and should be performed by the students themselves.[1]

Conant, in his book, The Education of American Teachers, observes that "American colleges and universities of all types seem to be almost totally committed to the shibboleth of the 'course' involving a certain amount of time in a certain room."[2] He continues:

> But it is high time to challenge the assumption that education takes place only when the student is physically present in the classroom. Opportunities for examining out should be offered much more widely than they are, especially in the area of general education. The use of examinations in place of course work would create greater flexibility for the student in arranging his course of study, especially in the first two years, and would encourage the fruitful use of free time in the summer or during recess. It would also serve to encourage initiative, and free the student, to some degree, from the role of schoolboy. Finally, the option of meeting requirements by examination, rather than by course-taking, places the emphasis where it should be: on the subject itself rather than on the arbitrarily defined segment of it.[3]

## Evidences of Institutional Acceptance of the Concept of Placing Greater Responsibility on Students

Consistent with this view of learning, colleges and universities are giving increasing attention to the development of policies and practices emphasizing student responsibility in learning. We discuss here only two illustrations of that interest: (1) the increasing opportunities afforded students for independent, self-directed study, and (2) growing institutional interest in the authorization of credit, on the basis of examination, for learning however acquired.

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[1] Henry Steele Commager, "The Problem Isn't Bricks - It's Brains," The New York Times Magazine, January 29, 1956, p. 67.

[2] James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York, New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1963), p. 78.

[3] Ibid., p. 79.

Independent Study. Independent study has reference to all methods in higher education that have to do with placing increased responsibility upon the student for his own education. It takes a variety of forms: (1) programs in which students work on individual projects where the student is on a one-to-one relationship with the instructor, (2) programs in which, within the framework of the traditional course, the student is given more time for self-directed study, spending less time in the teacher-student face-to-face situation traditional in the lecture courses, (3) programs in which the student is permitted through programed instruction to move ahead on his own, at his own pace, to the mastery of the content of a given course thought to be essential to his education.

Self-directed, independent study courses and programs can be categorized roughly according to the aim of the experience - whether it is intended to encourage the student to remain quiescent while mastering the content set out by the professor for the student to learn, or whether the self-directed study is intended to encourage the student to identify what has relevance for him and to explore freely in those areas.

1. Some self-directed, independent study courses have as their principal aim greater student efficiency in mastering the subject matter content of a given course as defined by the professor, and hitherto available only in a traditional college course. The goals of the course, its content, and the nature of the evaluation to be employed in measuring student achievement have all been determined by the professor. The student's role is to master the content of the course to a degree and in a manner to permit him successfully to respond to the examination questions. These kinds of self-directed opportunities are generally not intended to encourage the student to exercise his ingenuity in identifying problems, seeking solutions to the problems, or in taking an active role in determining the nature of the learning experience to be had in the class. Students are expected to be "passively acquiescent," as one writer puts it, moving as rapidly as they can to mastery of the subject matter content of the course.

   Programed learning courses, in book, film, or computer form, are illustrative of these kinds of self-directed study courses. The student's goal is acquisition of subject matter content. He is free to move at his own pace - rapidly or slowly as his abilities and interest dictate. The academically able student is not held back by less able classmates. The less able student is not harried at having always to move at a pace faster than comfortable, to keep up with his more able classmates. These courses have the added advantage that they do not require an instructor to spend the time formerly required to transmit to the student the information he now gets from the printed page, film, or computer.

   An illustration of this form of self-directed study is the programed course in dental anatomy developed by the dental school. This course, long taught as a basic one at the dental school, is available now only in the printed, programed form. Testimony from the dental school is to the effect that the comprehension of students of the content of the course is at least as good under the programed course as it was when the same content was offered through the traditional instructor-directed classroom course.

2. Some other self-directed, independent study courses or programs are distinguished by the aim they have to encourage in the student to ask his own questions, based upon his own sense of relevancy, and to find his own answers in a form and a manner that appears to have relevance to the problems he has identified.

   We see examples of these courses in the honors college courses that have sprung up throughout the country. These courses and programs encourage students to work independently, with assistance as needed. Some work-study programs, such as those at Antioch College, have a similar aim of encouraging a spirit of independence and self-trust on the part of the student.

While self-directed study courses and programs are receiving considerable attention in the academic world just now, it is important that institutions not blindly accept without evaluation, what is being done at other institutions. We are sometimes too prone in the educational world to accept, on the basis of hunch alone or unqualified and uncritical enthusiasm of others, what seems to be coming into vogue.

Actually, a review of the research on the impact of self-directed study, reported in 1965 stated that:

> This report discusses research on self-directed study, with special emphasis on two major /research/ findings. First, when the criterion for evaluating self-directed study is the student's learning of subject matter, the results are indeterminate, producing no very powerful argument for or against conventional methods such as lecture courses meeting two or three times per week. Second, when the criterion for evaluation of self-directed study is a group of attitudinal changes such as increased curiosity, critical thinking, and attitude toward independent intellectual work, brief experiences with self-directed study do typically produce small, favorable changes.[1] /Emphasis added/

Experience elsewhere suggests that where the self-directed course or program is framed in the objectives of the traditional, structured course, as in the case of programed instruction materials developed at the dental school, students have little difficulty with the concept, for they are conditioned to the instructor-dominated course content and they are accustomed to responding to the kinds of cues called forth by the examinations traditional with such courses.

But if the self-directed course or program is designed to create attitudinal changes in the student, to encourage him in his self-directed quest for relevant issues and meaning, evidence indicates that institutions should anticipate that preparation of the student for such experiences may be necessary if the student is to make the most of the experience. Esther

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[1] Howard A. Gruber, "The Future of Self-Directed Study," Approach to Independent Study, New Dimensions in Higher Education, Number 13, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1965), p. 1.

Raushenbush, president of Sarah Lawrence College, where they have had considerable experience with such programs, says of independent study:

> . . . Where it most often fails is where there has been a sudden imposition of the demand that a student function with a high degree of intellectual independence for which he has had no reasonable preparation. To allow a student to spend the first two years of college in highly structured classes, with syllabus, lecture notes, regular quizzes and multiple-choice examinations, and all sorts of protective devices that make us sure that he has heard what we or the television set has said and has learned to say it too, and then, because he has made honor grades in performing this exercise, to turn him loose to engage in independent study is to court the disaster that many independent study projects report. Thus, in many places it is only the students who have learned to perform most perfectly in the least independent kind of learning who are permitted to undertake the most independent kind. I would not venture to say how many who have performed in a mediocre way in routinized learning might perform brilliantly, given a chance to ask their own questions and pursue them to the end, but I suspect there are many.[1]

Speaking to the last point in the above quotation, Gruber makes the following comment based upon the available research on the subject:

> Another similar feature of the prevailing mythology is the widespread faculty belief that only intellectually superior students can profit from self-directed study. Recent research lends little support to this hypothesis.[2]

Gruber, speaking of self-directed study within the framework of traditional courses, suggests that:

> When we turn to effects of self-directed study other than the learning of course material, the so-called "collateral learning" of critical and independent intellectual attitudes, the results are somewhat more hopeful. Again, the changes may be small, not actually transforming the student's way of thought, but they do seem to be consistently in a favorable direction. Perhaps the most uniform finding of research in this area is that students initially dislike greater responsibility but come to accept it in the course of a semester, and that their brief experience with self-directed study does produce a more favorable attitude toward independent intellectual work.[3]

If one were intent on changing the present predominant style of teaching, to give the student a more meaningful role, Gruber suggests it would be difficult, not so much because of difficulty of securing faculty cooperation (for Gruber asserts that his experience demonstrates that the value of self-directed study can be shown to faculty without too much difficulty), but because of the necessity of preparing students for meaningful participation in a program based largely upon self-direction. He outlines the steps[1] in student preparation as including:

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[1] Esther Raushenbush, "Innovation and Educational Style," Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967), p. 198.
[2] Gruber, op. cit., p. 7.
[3] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

1. The development of "techniques for reorienting the student as soon as he arrives at college, so that he abandons any expectation that he can succeed in academic work merely by frenzied efforts to assimilate everything he is expected to know. We may not know how to do this in a way that would really reach the incoming student, but the results mentioned above suggest that we might learn to produce favorable changes in these attitudes in one or two semesters."

2. "The second phase, overlapping the first, and lasting about a year, would be a deliberate attempt to inculcate new patterns of intellectual work . . . . The design of Campbell's study provides clearcut evidence for the hypothesis that changes in attitudes and work habits must precede self-directed study if the latter is to produce improved learning of substantive material. Campbell's findings led him to conclude that "the first obstacle to be removed in making self-direction successful is the student's strong habit of 'passive acquiescence.'"

3. "The third phase of such a program would be to change the actual conduct of higher education in order to provide the student with convincing evidence that intellectual habits of passive acquiescence are bound to fail. The systematic introduction of instructional techniques placing greater and greater responsibility on the student, in such a way that intellectual self-reliance becomes a powerful tradition, is the most powerful force at our disposal."

Self-directed study - in any of its forms - is not a panacea for the problems of higher education. Whatever forms of self-directed study are introduced into state system institutions must of necessity reflect a faculty commitment to experimentation with this approach to learning and with a clear intent to assess the results of such programs as a basis for their retention and perhaps their expansion, or their modification and/or elimination.

The limited experience with programed instruction at the Dental School suggests that there may be other courses in the curricula of state system institutions which would with equally good results lend themselves to presentation in the programed study form without loss of effectiveness. Certainly this is one promising lead that should be followed up systematically.

Credit by Examination. Colleges and universities do not easily acquiesce to giving credit for work not taken either in the institution or in some other accredited institution, though there is precedent for doing so, both abroad and, on a limited basis, in this country. An ad hoc committee, appointed by the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB), reports a study to the effect that the University of London has, for more than 150 years, granted college credit to external students on the basis of examination.[2]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 6-7.

[2] Jack N. Arbolino, A Report to the Trustees of the College Entrance Examination Board: The Council on College-Level Examinations (New York, N. Y.: College Entrance Examination Board, 1965), p. 20.

In recent years an increasing number of colleges and universities in the United States have sensed the need for a means of granting credit to individuals, or determining their placement, on the basis of knowledge gained through such nontraditional means as correspondence study, television courses, independent study, on-the-job training, or general experience. This growing interest resulted in 1965 in a recommendation from an ad hoc committee appointed by the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) that the latter organization "develop a new examination emphasizing placement and credit beyond the freshman year."

Obedient to that recommendation, CEEB commissioned Educational Testing Service (based at Princeton University) to develop a battery of tests for this purpose. Through committees of examiners, consisting of what the Educational Testing Service considers outstanding teachers, a series of general and subject matter examinations have been developed and are now available through CEEB.

The general examinations consist of a battery of five multiple choice tests in the following fields, each test 60-75 minutes long: English composition, humanities, mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences-history. They are designed, says CEEB, "to be particularly relevant to the kinds of intellectual experiences students can be expected to have had by the end of two years of college." The subject examinations are designed to measure achievement in specific college courses in some 13 fields. Multiple-choice in form, each test is 90 minutes long and most include an optional 90-minute essay section.

> The Program has five major objectives: to provide a national program of examinations that can be used to evaluate nontraditional college-level education, specifically including independent study and correspondence work; to stimulate colleges and universities to become more aware of the need for and the possibilities and problems of credit by examination; to enable colleges and universities to develop appropriate procedures for the placement, accreditation, and admission of transfer students; to provide colleges and universities with a means by which to evaluate their programs and their students' achievement; to assist adults who wish to continue their education in order to meet licensing requirements or qualify for higher positions.[1]

Recent reports from the Educational Testing Service are to the effect that more than 150 colleges and universities throughout the country are willing to consider granting college credit to students who score at an appropriate level on the CEEB college-level examinations.

The foregoing development appears to fly in the face of the American concept of the importance of the "course," with its stated hours of class attendance and participation and its expected hours of outside study. It seems to be a rejection of the value of the kinds of learning which some have felt can be secured most effectively in classroom activities and post-classroom discussions. But it recognizes what no one can deny, namely, that there are many roads to learning and that what is important is what is learned, not the process or method by which learning was acquired.

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[1] College-Level Examination Program Description and Uses, 1967 (New York, N. Y.: College Entrance Examination Board, 1967), p. 3.

**To a limited extent students in some state system institutions have in the past been permitted to challenge, by examination, certain courses. These new CEEB examinations will offer increased incentive for exploring the many ways in which institutions may recognize learning achieved by individuals through nontraditional means. This is a matter deserving of earnest attention by our institutions.**

## A Sampling of Institutional Patterns for Encouraging and Rewarding Instructional Improvement

In numerous ways the institutions of the state system are seeking to encourage and to reward good teaching. We will not attempt here to suggest all of the many kinds of activities found on our campuses which have this aim in view. In a later report to the Board we plan to give more detailed consideration to this matter, institution by institution. For now, however, we report only a sampling of institutional efforts to stimulate and promote effective teaching.

### Teaching Performance as a Factor in Salary, Promotion, and Tenure Decisions

The Board of Higher Education has a long-standing policy that salary funds should be distributed by the institutions on the basis of merit. Across-the-board salary raises, not uncommon elsewhere, have been rare in the state system. Teaching ability is considered by the institutions to be one of the most significant factors in arriving at an assessment of merit, albeit the judgment on teaching performance is a subjective one, based usually upon indirect, second-hand reports rather than from any personal knowledge gained from classroom observation by deans or department heads.

Promotion and tenure decisions are likewise based upon merit, a significant aspect of which is related to teaching performance. For instance, one institution, in stating the criteria to be used in making judgments on promotion and tenure, lists under "Teaching" the following:

> . . . effective conduct of classes; stimulation of student interest; contribution to intellectual activities outside the classroom; effectiveness in keeping courses updated and staying abreast of any new developments; effectiveness in requiring good standards of performance and in measuring performance, and development of experimentation with new teaching techniques.

Another institution emphasizes to its deans and department heads that in recommending faculty for promotion and tenure the basis for the evaluation shall be clearly disclosed and the evidence presented.

### Special Faculty Awards for Teaching Excellence

Special awards for teaching excellence are made to one, or a limited number of faculty members each year in the multipurpose institutions as an evidence of institutional interest in effective teaching.

- One institution provides awards of $1,000 each to two faculty members annually, selected by a committee appointed by the President, and on which the President himself serves. Nominations for the award are made by students and faculty colleagues, and sometimes by former students.

- A second institution calls upon its Faculty Senate Committee for the Advancement of Teaching to select a small number of outstanding teachers annually.

- A third institution has established a Faculty Scholarship grants program for the purpose of stimulating better faculty preparation and to encourage the improvement of teaching. These grants are made annually to faculty for the following kinds of activities: (1) doctoral study, (2) master's study, (3) other purposes related to the improvement of instruction, including such as the following: (a) to pay travel expense and honorarium for consultants to work with the faculty or for special lecturers on college teaching, (b) to supplement out-of-state travel for the staff to permit participation in professional meetings, (c) to recognize special teaching merit, (d) to supplement special collections of books or instructional aids, (e) to supplement faculty research funds.

## Special Institutional Committees to Encourage Instructional Improvement

Several state system institutions have established special institutional committees whose purpose it is to stimulate instructional improvement. As might be anticipated, institutional personality is reflected in the committee structure and the way in which the committees operate. But the fundamental purposes appear to be the same, namely, to fix with a specific faculty committee a major responsibility for stimulating faculty planning and activity looking to the improvement of instruction.

- One institution has a Faculty Senate Committee for the Advancement of Teaching. Among its continuing responsibilities are these:

    1. To maintain in an up-to-date form, and to make available to faculty throughout the university, learning appraisal forms for use in securing appraisals of teaching effectiveness. These forms have been used extensively in the institution over the years and are also used in a number of other institutions.

    2. To sponsor an annual statewide conference on college teaching. An authority on some phase of teaching is brought to the campus to serve as consultant for these conferences.

    3. To sponsor the selection of a small number of outstanding teachers each year that they might be honored for teaching excellence.

- A second institution has a joint faculty-student Committee for Educational Experimentation, Innovation, and Improvement. Appointed by the faculty, this committee is charged with the following general responsibilities.

    1. To assess the current state of teaching practices in the institution, with the aim of identifying particular problem-areas where improvement is needed and where innovation and/or experimentation might be fruitful.

    2. To provide a clearing-house for information, within the institution, as to innovative and experimental practices which have proven successful at other institutions.

3. To encourage and support individual faculty proposals for experimentation in classroom and laboratory teaching.

The committee has asked the faculty's assistance in:

1. Diagnosing particular areas of instructional need at the institution which might benefit from careful experimentation.

2. Identifying classroom and laboratory practices which may be adaptable to the needs of the institution.

3. Suggesting specific programs of experimentation in the teaching-learning process.

Of the experimental projects proposed by faculty members, the committee will recommend for funding those which give promise of improving the quality or efficiency of the undergraduate program. In the brief period since the faculty was asked to propose experimental projects, a number of very interesting and worthwhile proposals have been received. One, for example, is from a department which proposes a fundamental reassessment of its curriculum and in its present tentative formulations would propose to employ a new approach to teaching through group projects, field projects and involvement of upper division students (under supervision by faculty and graduate students) to assist in the instructional process. A second proposal received relates to a sensitivity training program.

The committee itself is in process of developing a proposal for the creation on campus of a "Center for Experimental and Innovative Education." While the proposal has not yet been firmed up, it would appear that the proposed Center, if established, might conceivably have such purposes as the following: (1) to act as a catalyst on campus in the formulation and development of new ideas, (2) to stimulate and to assist in the development of research projects having to do with curricular and instructional matters, (3) to serve as a campus clearinghouse for relevant information concerning progress in research experimentation and implementation in instructional matters, (4) to provide consultative help to faculty wishing to experiment with new ideas for improving instruction.

- A third institution sets aside annually a small sum ($5,000 in a recent year) to provide a Special Fund for the Improvement of Teaching and Curricular Practices. This fund is considered "seed" money to be used to prime the pump so that more extensive funds can be secured from other sources in support of curricular and instructional experimentation and improvement.

- There is published at one of our institutions a journal of national repute, entitled "Improving College and University Teaching." Of it Baskin says, in his recent book (Higher Education: Some Newer Developments):

> . . . One should note also the periodical "Improving College and University Teaching," . . . which is making a significant contribution to college pedagogy.

## Establishment of Educational Materials Centers

Educational materials centers have been established on several of the campuses to make available to instructors professional help in the preparation of teaching aids, such as flip-charts, transparencies for use in overhead projectors, and numberous other kinds of teaching materials and equipment.

## Programs for Induction of New and Inexperienced Faculty Members

In one or more state system institutions organized programs for inducting new and inexperienced faculty members into the institution have been developed. These generally do not seek to assist the new faculty member to improve his teaching art and skills, but rather they seek to acquaint him with the structure of higher education, the curricular issues in higher education, and the nature of administrative problems in higher education.

One institution has established an Institute for College Teaching, through which it offers a year-long seminar for new faculty members for the purposes suggested above.

## Aid to Instructors in Appraising Their Performances

Institutions are using a variety of means for encouraging instructors to appraise their performance in the classroom, and for aiding them in making these appraisals. As we have earlier noted in this report, the mere fact that someone, particularly the administrative officers (deans, department heads, president), who control salary, promotion, and tenure, is concerned and interested in the faculty's efforts to appraise its teaching performance and improve it is stimulating to the faculty.

Whatever the form of the specific help given the faculty in this respect, the fact that the institution has thus expressed its concern with the improvement of teaching is likely to have a positive effect on teaching far exceeding that resulting from the specific help given.

The following examples are illustrative of institutional practices in this area:

1. Securing student appraisal of one's teaching performance.

   Several institutions have taken steps to encourage faculty members to seek student appraisal of the teaching-learning situation in which the individual instructor is involved. One institution has developed two forms for this purpose: a teaching appraisal form, and a learning appraisal form, the use of which it encourages among its faculty. Numerous faculty members have used these forms over the years to their advantage.

   A second institution has cooperated actively with students on campus in the development of systematic student appraisal of instruction. For the past two years, a bound volume containing these student appraisals of instruction in a wide range of courses has been prepared and sold by the students.

2. Encouraging faculty to see themselves as they are seen - actually.

   Several institutions have in the past provided faculty members a uniquely visual means of observing themselves in action. Faculty members are permitted to make video tapes of themselves instructing, in complete privacy, and with immediate playback. The response has been good. Some faculty members have brought with them students or colleagues to offer reactions and suggestions. At one institution, in the first year-and-a-half, 230 faculty members participated. Most were enthusiastic about the experience.

### Encouraging Faculty to Observe, First-Hand, Curricular and Instructional Innovations Elsewhere

As we have earlier noted in this report, actual observance by faculty of curricular and instructional innovations in operation in institutions similar in conditions and character to their own is far more persuasive than any oral or written report of these innovations, however well done.

State system institutions know this to be true and would like to operate more freely in this knowledge. Financial resources, however, seriously restrict their use of this important aspect of faculty development. In fact were it not for so-called "soft" money (money from private foundations, federal government, and like non-state sources) almost none of these kinds of opportunities could be offered faculty.

Perhaps the most widespread program of faculty visitations was that funded under the Oregon program by the Ford Foundation - a program related to the improvement of teacher education in the state of Oregon. Under this program, funds were made available to the teacher education institutions of the state system (UO, OSU, PSC, SOC, OCE, EOC) to finance the travel of faculty members to such locations as the University of Pittsburg (clinical supervision), Stanford (off-campus centers, intern programs, special laboratory experiences for teachers), and many other points in the United States and Canada where could be seen in operation innovative programs assumed to have some relevance to the improvement of teacher education in Oregon. The subjective evaluation of these experiences by the participants bore out expectations as to the value of these visits.

### Special Planning of Faculty with Department Heads for Appropriate Summer Activities

One institution having instructors whose teaching requires that they be current in their knowledge of technology in business, industry, and government arranges for these instructors to spend their summers in a manner agreed upon by the instructor and his department head, but providing some form of alternation between three summer options: (1) employment in industry in work related to the area in which the instructor is teaching, (2) attendance at summer school in a program designed to increase the individual's teaching competence, and (3) vacation.

### Application of New Media to Instruction

Space will not allow a review of the various kinds of experiments and activities that have been carried on in the several institutions relating to the use of newer media in the instructional programs, as a means of improving instruction or of rendering instruction more efficient. Some of these projects have been worked out in conjunction with, or under the direction of, the Teaching Research Center at Monmouth. The Board receives copies of the Teaching Research Center's annual report and thus it is probably not necessary for us here to seek to deal even with a sampling of what has been done at the Center.

One particularly dramatic illustration of the Center's collaboration with a unit of the state system in the application of new media to instruction should be mentioned again, however, for it represents an exciting and promising demonstration of what can be accomplished. We refer to the development of the dental anatomy course resulting from collaboration of the Dental School and the Teaching Research Center. The programed instruction developed has proven highly successful at the Dental School and has eliminated the need for the Dental School to offer its traditional classroom course in that field. These programed materials are in use throughout the United States, we are told.

## Joint Activity of Institutions and the Teaching Research Division

We refer here to one example of collaboration of several institutions with the Teaching Research Center which is illustrative of several that might have been chosen, namely, the CORD project (College Research Development Project), which was designed to involve the colleges of the state system in a cooperative activity with the Teaching Research Center, with a view to drawing upon the expertise of specialists in the Teaching Research Division to achieve the following objectives:

1. To expose faculty and administrators of five colleges to the skills and knowledge fundamental to producing good research and good research administration in higher education.

2. To stimulate and support faculty within the colleges to engage in educational research.

3. To engage as many of the five colleges as possible in a common research development undertaking, capitalizing on strengths in personnel and facilities at each separate institution so as to create a more productive research force than any one college could provide independently.

Although the objectives of the foregoing project relate to research, research developments often are built around projects related to improving of instruction, as was true with some of the projects in this case. One, for example, was directed specifically to the development of improved instructional techniques in such areas as biology.

## Involvement of Students in Curricular Development

Some institutions have sought, in the interests of curricular and instructional improvement, to give students a more active voice in the discussions relating to curricular and instructional practices.

At one institution for example, the associated students have established a body known as SEARCH (acronym for Students' Exploratory Actions Regarding

Curricular Heterodoxy), one of whose purposes is to seek to have established those courses not now available which students feel have a particular relevance to their interests (e.g., Viet Nam, Black Power, Poverty, Drugs, Peace, Mysticism in World Religions). In the spring of 1968 SEARCH reported that in four terms' operation, it had sponsored a total of 33 courses, taught by 26 faculty members, in 13 departments of four colleges or schools. Spring term 1968, SEARCH-sponsored courses numbered 17.

Student interest and encouragement has also had a significant influence in the development of pass-no pass provisions, permitting students to elect courses on a pass-no pass basis in accordance with regulations adopted by the faculty.

## Basic Assumptions Underlying
## An Effective Program of Instructional Improvement

1. College professors, no less than workers in other occupations or professions, are guided in what they do by a consuming desire to satisfy their own "felt" needs. Faculty will give their fullest attention to the improvement of instruction when it is evident to them that this is the surest route to the fulfillment of the needs they feel.

2. Need satisfaction for the professor is rooted on the one hand in the in-dwelling sense of fulfillment that comes from teaching or research work superlatively well done, and on the other, in his desire for prestige, security, or authority. And despite the stereotype which represents the professor as a bemused, other-worldly character, he is a canny pursuer of the conditions which offer him the fullest promise of meeting these needs.

3. Since prestige (nationally) within one's own subject matter discipline is won most usually by one's research and publications in his discipline, rather than by the quality of his teaching at the undergraduate level, the professor who devotes himself primarily to teaching must look to his own institution for recognition and prestige.

4. Extrinsic motivation can be expressed in either a positive or a negative way. Positive motivation is represented by such things as: academic promotion, salary increments, awards, special grants in support of the professor's work, praise, granting of authority over others. These enhance the professor's need satisfaction.

   Negative motivation - which reduces the professor's need satisfaction - is represented by such things as: unwanted or low-esteem assignments, withholding of salary increments or promotion, criticism from the dean or department head who is in a position to control salaries, promotion and tenure and the other emoluments at the disposal of the institution.

5. As simple and easy as positive motivation may appear, unless it is properly used, it may generate misunderstanding, hostility, or even rejection by the persons it was intended to benefit. As for example, in industry, where, on some occasions, efforts of the management to improve the workers' lot have sometimes been seen by workers as a sly way to gain further ascendancy over the worker by disarming him with favors granted in a paternalistic fashion.

   Closer to home, we recall the reaction of the faculties of state system institutions when the legislature appropriated a half million dollars for payment to gifted undergraduate teachers. Legislators were nonplussed by the generally negative faculty reaction to this effort to augment the "need satisfaction" of undergraduate teachers through money grants - a reaction sufficiently intense to cause six of the seven multipurpose institutions of the state system to turn back to the state's general fund the funds available to them in 1966-67 for these grants rather than to participate in a program of which they did not approve.

102

6. There is about an institution an ethos which, to the experienced professor, is easily read and understood. Its sum is more than the total of its parts. And when that ethos says clearly to the professor that the institution's commitment is to effective instruction, the message is not easily lost upon him.

   The professor draws his clues as to the institution's devotion to and interest in effective teaching by the things the institution does to express that interest and to reward those who demonstrate a capacity for a truly professional level of instruction. He seeks these clues through an examination of such matters as these:

   a. In faculty recruitment is there, in an emphasis upon the amount of time that can be given to research and writing and the minimizing of the teaching required, an implied denigration of teaching? Or, is there a very positive emphasis upon the importance of teaching as the institution's primary role?

   b. What solid evidence is there of the president's concern that the institution be known for the quality of its teaching? What evidence that the president seeks in any systematic fashion to keep informed as to the state of teaching in the institution, or the efforts being made to encourage continuing interest in good teaching?

   c. Is there any evidence that the deans and department heads are seeking in any continuing, systematic fashion to stimulate the departments to a concern with the quality of teaching?

   d. Is there any kind of institution-wide agency having special responsibility for promoting the improvement of teaching in the institution?

   e. What kinds of special provisions are there to encourage individual faculty members interested in the improvement of their teaching? Funds, facilities (e.g., audio-visual centers, TV recording and playback equipment), time (provision for faculty to be allocated some time for special approved projects related to improvement of instruction).

   f. What efforts are made in a systematic fashion to consider teaching abilities and achievements in making of decisions as to promotion, salaries, and tenure?

7. Professors, like others, find that change is not easy. And change is likely to be even more difficult if it is felt that it is being imposed from above, particularly if it appears that the "administration" (deans, department heads, president) is pressing for curricular or instructional changes on the basis of uncritical acceptance of roseate promises of increased educational efficiency and economy. If the faculty senses that the administration is building up false hopes as to what may be achieved by new instructional devices or methods, for example, their resistance may be more a matter of resistance to administrative incursions into the faculty's domain, than it is to the changes themselves. When this occurs, it is difficult, if not impossible, to secure from the faculty an impartial, open-minded assessment of a potentially useful method or device.

As a practical matter, it is the faculty which ultimately must live with, and make operative, any curricular or other changes looking to the improvement of instruction. No effective or lasting changes in instructional matters can be achieved without their involvement, cooperation, and support.

8. Evidence suggests that most changes in higher education have been prompted by outside pressures, or have been aided by such pressures. Institutions tend to be imitative. Curricular and instructional innovations elsewhere are more likely to be considered to have relevance for the local institution under the following circumstances:

   a. When the innovation is found in an institution considered by the faculty to resemble closely the local institution. Found in a setting appreciably different from the faculties' own institutional setting, the innovation may well be considered by the faculty to be untested and unproven. It loses thereby much of its appeal for the local faculty.

   b. When the faculty can observe, first-hand, the innovation in action. No amount of descriptive material, however well prepared, whether oral or written, can equal in persuasiveness faculty visits to an institution not unlike their own to observe first-hand that an innovation works.

9. Faculty are stimulated to curricular and instructional innovating when their work is the object of overt interest by others - notably professorial and administrative colleagues, particularly from within the institution. The Hawthorne effect[1] appears to be as potent in higher education as it was shown to be in industry and in the army.

   In short, as someone has said, "Simply paying attention to what teachers are doing apparently can improve their teaching . . . . The advantage of this kind of 'overproduction' is that it tends to insure better results (at least temporarily) even from approaches which are inherently no better than those they replace."

10. Any systematic plan for the improvement of instruction in an institution that aims to serve very many of the faculty must recognize that professors differ in their teaching abilities, in their interest in efforts to improve teaching, and in their readiness to participate in movements aimed at improving teaching. This has two important implications for any institutional plan for seeking to stimulate interest in the improvement of instruction:

    a. No institution can move on a solid front, involving all of its teaching faculty. For all are not ready. Institutions must, of necessity, move on a broken front, involving those professors who are in a state of readiness, meanwhile seeking ways to bring others to that state as soon as may be. This common sense principle is supported by psychological theory which suggests that: (1) when an individual is ready for action, action is satisfying, (2) when an individual is ready, and he is not permitted to act, he experiences a sense of frustration, and (3) when an individual is not ready to act and is none-the-less obliged by an outside force to act, he may feel both threatened and frustrated.

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[1] The Hawthorne effect is so named because the experiment which demonstrated that increased production in an industrial plant could be stimulated by evidences of interest and attention from others took place in the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric, in Chicago.

b. The institutional plan must have numerous, different aspects to it, in order that all of the diverse interests represented by those faculty members who are psychologically ready to act can find some aspect of the plan of interest to them, at the level at which they are prepared to act.

Faculty members, no less than their students, must begin at the point where they are in their thinking. Some being further advanced in their thinking than others are prepared to operate at a different level than those less well prepared. The important thing in faculty improvement is not that everyone begin at the same level in their efforts to improve, but rather that each begin at the level of his present understanding and need and that he progress from where he is to some higher plane. The undersigned's experience with public school teachers over a period of many years bears out in dramatic fashion the importance of this principle.

## Continuing Efforts Toward Curricular and Instructional Improvement

This last chapter attempts to speak to the future. Our aim is to suggest some steps that might be taken in the immediate future to provide a continuing and perhaps augmented expression of the interest state system colleges and universities have shown in curricular and instructional improvement. We do not suggest that these are the only steps that might be taken with profit - or necessarily the best. However, we think they are good ones. They would move us toward more systematic attention to ways of encouraging and rewarding effective teaching and curricular and instructional improvement, generally. At the least, they should elicit discussion. If that discussion leads to the adoption of better approaches to curricular and instructional improvement than are here suggested, our ends will have been well served.

### Institutional Plans for Curricular and Instructional Improvement

We believe that the desire of the institutions to encourage and to reward effective teaching, and to promote curricular and instructional improvement generally, will be more clearly evident to the faculty, more surely expressed, and more productive of results if each institution has a plan for giving systematic expression to that desire.

This is not to suggest that some elements that might become integral parts of such a plan do not already exist in the institutions. Our earlier description of a sampling of the activities to be found in the institutions of the state system indicates that each institution has some well developed activities designed to encourage and reward good teaching, and to encourage curricular and instructional improvement, generally. What we are suggesting here, however, is that a total, comprehensive, integrated plan now be developed. Those aspects of present institutional practice that have proven effective would, of course, be integrated within the total plan in some fashion.

The overall plan should be developed within the institution by whatever mechanisms will give appropriate voice to the several segments of the academic community (faculty, administration, students). Institutional plans will necessarily reflect institutional character and personality. But we should like here to suggest some elements that might reasonably be included, without, in any sense, implying that all need be, and without limiting what an institution may wish to include.

1. Review of the curriculum and course structure of the institution.

   This would consist of a plan for a curriculum-by-curriculum and course-by-course review and analysis of the curricula of the institution within the context of relevance for education in the latter third of the twentieth century. As we have earlier observed in this report, such an analysis would necessarily include such considerations as: the characteristics of the students to be served, the specific objectives and aims of each curricular program, the curricular organization and structure dictated or suggested by these objectives and aims, the most effective means of establishing a learning environment such that these objectives can be attained, the means by which departments and schools, and the institution itself, will assess the extent to which the curricular objectives are being met.

If it were well done, such a review and analysis would be arduous. If not well done, it would not be worth the time given to it. The price of academic excellence comes high.

Such a basic review and analysis of curricula necessarily opens up discussions of such basic governing matters as the following.

- The purpose and nature of general education in higher education. This is an issue of long-standing discussion in higher education. Some feel that this is one of the most important of the unmet needs of higher education, namely, the development of well-conceived general education programs.

- The nature of learning and its implication for curricula and course goals or objectives. Critics in our colleges and universities continue to deride higher education for its alleged overemphasis upon factual data, memorization, emphasis on detail, and what they deem insufficient concern with "concept learning," and the development of the skills that enable the individual to become a free and independent agent in the academic world, with the incentive and the know-how to go on learning throughout a lifetime.

- Organizational structure for curricula - departmental vs. divisional or interdepartmental organization. Internal critics continue to insist that the departmental organization characterizing the subject matter disciplines (e.g., physics, chemistry, history, sociology) are inadequate to today's student needs, confronted as he is with problems that cut across the narrow disciplinary lines. Some of the newer colleges and universities are reorganizing their curricula on an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary pattern to meet this need and this criticism.

- The extension of the academic program into the residential environment. Institutional bigness has its merits. But it is not an unmixed blessing. An increasing number of institutions are turning to grouping of students within the institution in such fashion as to create living-learning units built into the residential patterns of the institution. Such groupings are organized around the residence halls, with, in some instances, classes, advising services, libraries, and professorial assistance all available within the residential unit. We are not suggesting that this is a pattern any of the Oregon institutions should adopt, but it is one which should be kept under surveillance and study.

- Articulation of the lower division courses with high school offerings. Secondary schools have, in the main, been appreciably upgraded academically by the impetus given them following the launching of the Russian sputnik in 1957. There are many in higher education who feel that higher education has taken too little account of this fact in the freshmen and sophomore courses offered.

- Implications of calendar innovations. We have reference here to the development of fourth-term offerings and related issues.

2. Recognition of teaching performance in appointment, promotion, tenure, and salary policies.

This is a perennial problem in college and university administration. There is no easy solution, given the difficulties of assessing teaching performance on other than subjective reports and hearsay evidence. But it is a problem which needs continuing attention, however remote may appear any truly satisfying solution.

3. Mechanisms to encourage the infusion of new knowledge and worthwhile innovations into the process of education.

Studies of innovation in elementary and secondary education as well as in higher education suggest that the climate for innovation, and the extent of innovation, are dependent to a significant degree upon: (a) faculty involvement and commitment in the planning and implementation stages, and (b) administrative interest and approbation expressed in some very tangible ways. Each is indispensable to an innovative climate. And without such climate, the gifted teachers who are interested in experimentation and innovation in teaching simply find their incentive for innovating drying up in the face of seeming indifference.

To establish an innovative climate and to encourage those faculty members who are in a state of readiness to move in a conjoint effort to the improvement of curricular and instructional practices, an increasing number of institutions are establishing administrative mechanisms designed to express institutional desire to encourage and foster innovative tendencies among the faculty.

These mechanisms sometimes include the designation of an administrative officer close to the president's seat of authority, to give leadership to instructional improvement and curricular and instructional innovating. Often combined with this administrative position is an institutional committee, often appointed by the faculty, and having membership drawn from the faculty, but with students sometimes members, as well.

We have earlier referred in this report to the joint faculty-student Committee for Educational Experimentation, Innovation, and Improvement appointed by one state system institution to provide this kind of campus-wide support and stimulation to efforts of faculty members to improve teaching and learning.

Dr. Richard Netzel, an American Council on Education administrative intern at the University of Oregon, has visited in 1967-68 a number of institutions which are known for their innovations in higher education. In studying the lists of persons he conferred with in these institutions, one gets a sense of the fact that the institutions have developed mechanisms for giving strong administrative encouragement to curricular and instructional innovation. To illustrate:

- At Antioch College, among those he conferred with were: an official of the Office of Educational Research and Program Development who is directly responsible to the Dean of Faculties, the president of the Union for Research and Experimentation in Higher Education.
- At Michigan State University, those he conferred with included: the Assistant Director, Educational Development Program, the Director of the Learning Service, the Director of the Evaluation Services, an official of the Instructional Media Center.
- At the University of Minnesota, he conferred with the Director of the Center for Curriculum Development who is directly responsible to the Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs.

Some indication of the breadth of the responsibilities given these special administrative agencies in some institutions may be seen from the list of objectives of the Michigan State University Educational Development Program:

1. To identify major problems in the areas of the curriculum the learning-teaching process and the utilization of faculty, financial and physical resources.

2. To stimulate and conduct research which will suggest solutions to identified problems.

3. To undertake projects and studies which give promise of improving both the quality and the efficiency of the undergraduate program.

4. To support and provide service to groups interested in experimentation with new procedures and methods in learning and teaching.

5. To facilitate implementation of faculty and administration approved solutions to problems.

6. To identify and communicate progress in research, experimentation and implementation.[1]

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[1] John F. Dietrich and F. Craig Johnson, "A Catalytic Agent for Innovation in Higher Education," Educational Record, (Summer issue, 1967), p. 209.

The importance of the expression of administrative and faculty interest in, and support for, curricular and instructional improvement, which the creation of mechanisms described above represents, cannot be overemphasized.

4. Plans for "teaching improvement" programs.

   Reference here is to the institutional plan for supervision, pre-service, and in-service programs aimed at teacher improvement.

   Earlier in this report reference was made to the fact that teaching assistants and newly appointed, inexperienced full-time faculty members would benefit from organized, systematic assistance by the institution in the development of teaching arts and skills essential to effective instruction. We noted that in the institutions having teaching assistants some departments are seeking sedulously to provide this sort of instructional leadership and supervision, although many departments do not.

   There is also a broader question related to what plans, if any, may usefully be made for in-service programs for experienced faculty members.

5. Aid to instructors in appraising their performances.

   We have reference here to institutional plans for assiting instructors to appraise their teaching effectiveness. Two illustrations of what institutions are currently doing along that line were described earlier in this report: (a) encouragement of staff to seek student appraisal of the teaching-learning environment for which the faculty member shares responsibility, (b) opportunity to video-tape one's performance, privately, with immediate playback.

6. Application of new media to instruction.

   This aspect of the plan might have been subsumed under an earlier heading relating to the infusion of worthwhile innovations into the instructional program. But is sufficiently important to warrant special attention. We have reference here to such as: television, computers, teaching machines and programed learning of all kinds.

   The work of the Teaching Research Center at Monmouth in this area has been productive and gives promise of further usefulness on a broader scale.

7. Instructional Materials Centers.

8. Placing greater responsibility on the student to learn.

   We refer here to such developments as the wide variety of independent study programs to be found in American higher education, and the increasing use of general education and subject matter examinations, such as those of the College Entrance Examination Board, as a basis for granting credit for knowledge gained by whatever means.

9. Plans for improved academic advising as an aspect of the educational program.

10. Plans for special groups of students (e.g., disadvantaged).

## Commitment of Resources

The improvement of the teaching-learning situation in our institutions is, in final analysis, dependent upon a number of factors, including the individual teacher, institutional arrangements which foster teaching excellence, and adequate support. Ultimately, and in great measure, however, it rests upon the individual teacher and his commitment to teaching excellence. If the quality of teaching is not as high as it ought to be, corrective action must ultimately be taken by the individual teacher, although, as we have earlier suggested in this report, institutional circumstances may, in some instances, need altering if the teacher is to be given fullest freedom to teach as well as he would like to. But it needs to be emphasized that no change in institutional arrangements will bring about higher quality instruction unless the individual teacher in the classroom wills that quality shall improve.

This is not to ignore the responsibility of students to contribute to the quality of the teaching-learning situation. The student, by taking advantage of the best that the institution can offer, and by responding actively, can make a significant contribution to the teacher's incentive for seeking teaching excellence, and to the teaching-learning environment itself.

Nor can the importance of institutional arrangements to instructional and curricular improvement be ignored. The immediately preceding section of this chapter recommended certain steps that usefully can be taken by the institutions to assess what institutional arrangements might most effectively contribute to instructional and curricular improvement.

What we wish to emphasize here is that many of the institutional arrangements that relate to the improvement of curricula and instruction will require the commitment of faculty and financial resources, if they are to be brought off effectively.

For instance, the development of the institutional plans themselves, (proposed in the preceding pages of this chapter) will involve the commitment of substantial institutional resources. Moreover, it seems certain that some, if not many, of the recommendations that are developed in the institutional plans will also involve commitment of faculty and financial resources. For many kinds of endeavors, apart from higher education, have shown that innovation and improvement are purchased only at a price. That is the lesson that industry teaches. It is the tale that agricultural development tells.

Industrial enterprises which are so much dependent upon innovation to maintain their competitive position in a fast-changing world, plow back into research and development a specified portion of their earnings as the seed upon which future corporation harvests will depend. This systematic, continuing investment in the search for innovations is an integral aspect of corporate thinking. It is what makes possible the basic and applied research which is the engine which generates the power upon which industrial progress depends.

The same might be said of agriculture, where funds invested in continuing, long-range research and development have produced agricultural productivity that is the envy of the world.

We must think of higher education in the same light. The steady, continuing, consistent investment in innovation and improvement in the teaching-learning environment and processes will serve, for education, the same purpose as the support of research and development in agriculture has served agriculture.

There is no lack of ideas among our faculties for improving curricular and instructional practices. Let the word go out that it is possible to secure financial assistance in support of plans for improving curricular and instructional practices in our institutions, and a flood of proposals will be received. We found this to be true when the Board's office asked the faculties of the institutions for suggestions as to alternative ways to expend the $200,000 appropriated by the 1965 legislature for the merit award program (described in the appendix). And the state system institution which recently established a joint faculty-student committee for educational experimentation, innovation, and improvement, is finding that, when asked, the faculty will respond with numerous worthwhile proposals, almost all of which would involve staff time and financial commitment.

What we are suggesting is that if the legislature were to make available to the state system, on a continuing basis, funds specifically for "improvement of learning," leaving to each institution the determination of how best to expend them in order to promote improved instructional and curricular policies and practices, we might anticipate a most salutary impact on innovation and improvement, far beyond the value of the funds thus invested. For this continuing expression of specific interest in instructional and curricular improvement would contribute to the development and strengthening of that institutional ethos which is so essential to the strengthening of the commitment of the individual teacher to teaching excellence.

The institutional plans which we have suggested be developed would form a useful basis for institutional decisions as to how most effectively to expend these "improvement of learning" funds on the basis of the institutional plan, each institution would be able to fix a rational priority for the purposes for which the funds would be expended.

But beyond the "improvement of learning" funds here proposed for distribution to the institutions, we would propose that additional funds be made available for expenditure on specific instructional problems that are interinstitutional in character and whose solution can most efficiently be approached by a concerted attack, involving the bringing together of a wealth of personnel and financial resources, much after the manner of the national task forces that brought forth the new curricula in physics, chemistry, and biology.

But we believe that the institutions and the Board's office should have an important hand in the determination of the nature and the priority of the problems upon which these special funds are to be expended.

We are fortunate in Oregon to have a variety of agencies already in being which would lend themselves to this task force concept on an interinstitutional basis. The Teaching Research Center is the best known of these, and is, of course, well known to the Board and to educators generally throughout the state. It has to its credit extensive work in some aspects of teaching research, particularly problems related to elementary and secondary education. More recently, as a beneficiary of federal funds, it has held a number of conferences on the improvement of instruction, attended by representatives from throughout the nation as well as from state system institutions. It has also developed, as a part of the same federally funded project, several films on the improvement of instruction which have been shown on educational television in recent months.

A second agency which may prove useful, in some instances, is the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration at the University of Oregon. Federally funded, it is a national center for the study of educational administration.

## APPENDICES

Page

Appendix A - The Oregon Merit Award Plan for Teaching Excellence, 1965-1967 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 117

Appendix B - Recommended Guidelines for Development of Institutional Plans for the Distribution of Merit Awards for Teaching Excellence . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 131

Appendix C - Statement of the Interinstitutional Committee on Merit Award Programs . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 135

Appendix D - Student Evaluation Forms - OSU . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 139

# APPENDIX A

## The Oregon Merit Award Plan for Teaching Excellence, 1965-1967

The 1965 Legislative Assembly set aside some half million dollars to be used during the 1965-1967 biennium by the institutions of the State System of Higher Education for "grants to teachers of undergraduate courses." The only guidance given the state system institutions by the legislative assembly as to the method of distribution of the funds was included in the budget report of subcommittee No. 4 of the Ways and Means Subcommittee to the 53rd Legislative Assembly, which stated (April 29, 1965) that the "Board of Higher Education is instructed to distribute this fund in accordance with the following criteria:

1. The fund shall be distributed equally between the two years of the 1965-1967 biennium.

2. The fund shall be distributed in multiples of one thousand among Oregon State University, University of Oregon, Portland State College, Oregon College of Education, Southern Oregon College, Eastern Oregon College, and Oregon Technical Institute in accordance with the F.T.E. of undergraduate students enrolled.

3. Grants shall be nonrecurring, but a faculty member may qualify for consideration each year, irrespective of previous grants.

4. To qualify for consideration for a grant, a faculty member must teach an average of two 3-credit courses at the undergraduate level during at least two terms of the academic year for which he is being considered.

5. Students shall be involved in either the nomination or selection of grant winners. They may be involved in both nomination and selection."

The subcommittee said further that it:

> . . . anticipates that faculty members will be asked to propose plans for selecting grant winners, the plans to be approved by the Board of Higher Education consistent with the above criteria. Such plans may vary among institutions. In the event an institution declines to participate, the institutional share of the fund shall be distributed proportionately among the remaining institutions. Any portion of the fund not used for the expressed purpose shall revert to the General Fund.

While the Board of Higher Education recognized that the subcommittee's recommendations had not the force of law, the Board thought it useful to be guided by the general intent of the subcommittee's declaration, since no other legislative directive provided as clear a statement of intent.

State System Guidelines Developed

To develop guidelines to give direction to the institutions in the development of their plans for the distribution of the merit awards for teaching excellence, the name given to the above awards, the Chancellor appointed a committee of deans of instruction or deans of faculty from the several institutions, with the Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs as chairman. The interinstitutional committee developed guidelines, presented on pp.131-34, which were issued August 26, 1965, and taken to the Board of Higher Education October 25-26, 1965. The general tenor of the committee's view as to the role to be played by the institutions in the development of institutional plans, and as to the general purpose of these proposed awards for excellence in undergraduate teaching may be gleaned from the following excerpt from the recommended guidelines:

> I. The development of the merit award plans for the several institutions should be left to the institutions.
>
> A. The success of the merit award plan in each of the institutions is dependent upon the degree to which the plan is accepted by the faculty.
>
> B. Faculty acceptance of the plan is dependent in large measure upon the extent to which the faculty has participated in the development of the plan and the extent to which the final plan adopted by the institution is seen by the faculty to reflect the views of the faculty.
>
> II. The plans developed by the institutions, while reflecting institutional differences, should be devised to achieve, as nearly as may be, the ultimate ends which the merit award program is designed to serve. These ends are understood by the Deans of Faculty to be:
>
> A. To signify the great importance attached to high quality undergraduate teaching by the legislature, the State Board of Higher Education, and the institutions of the State System.
>
> B. To reward, by monetary grants, those faculty members who devote a significant portion of their time to undergraduate teaching, and who have demonstrated an uncommon ability as teachers of undergraduate teachers.
>
> C. To encourage faculty members of outstanding teaching ability to remain in undergraduate teaching, or to return to undergraduate teaching, by providing them with incentives to offset incentives offered by research and other non-teaching activities in higher education.

It was further agreed by the interinstitutional committee:

1. That the minimum required participation in undergraduate teaching to qualify a faculty member for consideration for a merit award grant should be, in all institutions of the state system, an average of six credit hours

at the undergraduate level during at least two terms of the academic year for which the faculty member was to be considered.

2. That students must be involved in either the nomination or selection of grant winners and that students might be involved in both nomination and selection.

3. That the merit award grants should be in the amount of $1,000. The interinstitutional committee arrived at this figure on the basis of deduction made from the budget report of subcommittee No. 4 of the Ways and Means Committee which made no explicit statement concerning the size of the awards for teaching excellence. The subcommittee stipulated, however, that the funds appropriated were to be distributed among the participating institutions in multiples of one thousand dollars, in accordance with the FTE of undergraduate students enrolled. The state system interinstitutional committee, in developing guidelines for the institutions reasoned that:

   > Inferentially, therefore, there is some reason to believe that the subcommittee had in mind $1,000 grants, else they would probably have made no reference in the distribution pattern to multiples of $1,000, contenting themselves with a statement that the funds should be awarded to the institutions in accordance with the FTE of undergraduate students enrolled.

4. That such other stipulations as the institutions might wish to make in their plans with respect to setting qualifications for consideration for a merit award were to be determined by the institutions. As a general view, however, the state system interinstitutional committee commented that it believed that "the ends for which the merit award appropriation was made by the legislature will be best served when the additional restrictions are kept to a minimum."

5. That the timing of the granting of the awards during 1965-66 should be determined by each of the institutions in accordance with its own needs.

A copy of the interinstitutional committee's recommended guidelines was sent to Mr. Mosser, the chairman of Subcommittee No. 4 of the Ways and Means Committee, for any comments he might wish to make concerning the proposed institutional guidelines. He responded in a letter dated September 16, 1965 that he saw nothing in the proposed guidelines "which is contrary to legislative intent."

Following the issuance of the recommended guidelines for the merit award program, there was considerable public discussion of the merit award program, some of it centering on the intent of the legislature in supporting the merit award plan. Because of some public reports which appeared to raise a question as to whether state system guidelines for the merit award plan really reflected the intentions of the subcommittee of the Ways and Means Committee, the state system interinstitutional committee (which had drafted the aforementioned guidelines) issued on November 10, 1965, a statement setting forth its views concerning the merit award program, the state system guidelines for the program, and the evaluation of the program (pp. 135-137).

Among the points made by the committee were the following:

1. The committee believes that the best interests of education in the state system will be served if the institutions seek assiduously to make the most of the merit award program.

2. The committee is of the opinion that whatever may be said as to the merits of the program it (the program) has focused attention upon undergraduate teaching to a marked degree.

3. The committee believes that the guidelines for the merit award program which were endorsed by the committee and adopted in October by the Board of Higher Education are fully in accord with the legislative guidelines established for the program, as these were stated in the official legislative documents, and should form the basis of the institutional plans for the merit award program of 1965-66.

4. If written modification of the legislative guidelines for the merit award program is provided the state system from appropriate legislative sources, the committee feels that such modifications should be considered by the committee in determining the extent and the nature of the modifications in the state system guidelines that the committee should recommend for the 1966-67 school year.

5. The committee believes that plans must be made now for an evaluation of the merit award program.

In elaboration of item 5 above, the committee made the following additional significant statement:

> . . . The committee recognizes that there may be disposition on the part of some to dismiss the merit award program out-of-hand - to make a totally negative evaluation of the plan forthwith. This would, in the judgment of the committee, be unfortunate. The committee believes that the evaluation should be made after the fact. The committee believes further:
>
> a. That the first and most immediate need is for the institutions to establish the plans and machinery for evaluating their experiences with their merit award programs during 1965-66, with a view to such amendments of their plans for 1966-67 as seem indicated.
>
> b. That insofar as the evaluation of the impact of the merit award programs upon the improvement of undergraduate teaching in the institutions, it would not be realistic to expect that any effective evaluation could be made of such a matter at this time, except for such subjective judgments as might be elicited from staff and/or students.

c. That the present merit award program in the state system, both as a concept and as a pattern of legislative and institutional operation and relationship, should be carefully evaluated as to the long-range and pervasive effects of such operational policies, if these policies were to be applied generally, in the future, to define legislative and institutional relationships.

d. That consideration should be given by institutions to assessing, on a defensible basis, the views of the faculty and of students vis-a-vis the merit award program as a concept, and as to the specific features of the institution's merit award program.

e. That in the assessment of faculty and student attitudes toward the merit award program there should be sufficient commonality in the kinds of data gathered to permit ready collation of the data from the several institutions.

f. That if the present merit award program seems an unacceptable approach to the achievement of the purposes for which the program was established, the institutions should make explicit what positive, affirmative steps they are taking, and would propose to take in the future, to achieve these same purposes in a more effective way. That these institutional plans should constitute a part of the total evaluative report which is to be prepared by the Chancellor's office in preparation for the 1967 legislative session.

### Reduction in Funds Available for the Merit Award Program

Whereas the amount appropriated by the legislature for the merit award program for the 1965-1967 biennium was $500,000, that sum was reduced to $200,000 by agreement of the Board of Higher Education and the Emergency Board in order to make $300,000 available for other uses in higher education. Thus $100,000 was available for distribution in support of the merit award program in each year of the biennium.

### Participation in the Merit Award Program, 1965-66 and 1966-67

Of the seven state system institutions eligible to participate in the merit award program, five (OSU, PSC, SOC, OCE, and EOC) participated in 1965-66. Following faculty discussion and vote, the University of Oregon and the Oregon Technical Institute declined to participate in the program. The funds that would otherwise have gone to their faculties were distributed among the five participating institutions.

The sums received by each participating institution in 1965-66 were as follows:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| OSU - | $47,000 | OCE - | $7,000 |
| PSC - | 30,000 | EOC - | 5,000 |
| SOC - | 11,000 | | |

In 1966-67, only one institution (PSC) elected to participate in the merit award plan. The funds that were available for the other six institutions, had they participated, were returned to the general fund of the state. PSC received $30,000, the same as in 1965-66.

## Attitude of the Institutions Toward the Merit Award Plan

That there have been some negative attitudes in the institutions of the state system toward the merit award plan is evident from the fact that only five of the seven institutions elected to participate in 1965-66, and only one of the seven participated in 1966-67. What prompted this dissatisfaction with the plan? Briefly, these are some of the factors that concerned the institutions.

1. Faculty concern over what they considered legislative involvement in matters which the faculties feel should be internal to the institutions.

   Oregon has been favored over the years by the long-standing policy of legislative non-interference in the internal affairs of the colleges and universities of the state. Such matters have wisely been left by the legislature to the Board of Higher Education and the institutions themselves.

   Although participation of institutions in the merit award plan was to be entirely voluntary, and although the institutions were to be allowed some measure of independence in defining the details of the policies under which the merit award plan should operate, faculties felt that the legislature was infringing upon the prerogatives of the institutions and the Board, in at least two particulars:

   a. The $500,000 originally provided in the legislation for the merit award program (subsequently reduced to $200,000) was understood by faculties to have been taken from the salary funds and earmarked for use in the merit award plan. Although Mr. Mosser, chairman of the subcommittee of the Ways and Means Committee responsible for establishing the program, affirmed that these funds were not subtracted from the salary funds but were actually funds which would not otherwise have been available for higher education, there still persisted among faculties the feeling that salary funds had been reduced to make this program possible.

   b. The legislative subcommittee had established guidelines governing the institutional plans for administering the program, thus seriously limiting the character of the uses to which the merit award money could be put by an institution. The sentiment of the institutions toward these guidelines was well stated by President Flemming in his report on this subject to the Board of Higher Education on December 14, 1965. Speaking of the University of Oregon faculty and of its consideration of the merit award program, President Flemming said:

      > . . . It concluded that the guidelines set forth in the report of the Ways and Means Committee were of such a nature as to make it impossible to develop a plan which would incorporate sound personnel policies.

2. Faculty unwillingness to accept the imputation they felt to be implicit in the merit award plan, namely, that the institutions were doing nothing of their own volition to reward and to encourage effective undergraduate teaching.

Faculties interpreted the legislative establishment of a merit award program as reflecting a legislative assumption that the institutions were doing little or nothing to reward and to encourage effective undergraduate teaching. This the faculties were unwilling to acknowledge. They pointed to the fact that, over the years, salary funds have been, in preponderant part, distributed on a merit basis precisely to encourage excellence among staff members. And, they insisted, teaching effectiveness has been and is a factor in measuring merit as a basis for salary increases. Something of this flavor is to be found in President Flemming's statement before the Board (December 14, 1965).

> . . . If reporters had been present /at the faculty meetings in which the decision was reached not to participate in the merit award plan/, our students and the citizens of the state would have read accounts of thoughtful and carefully prepared statements by, and exchanges between, faculty members which, in my judgment, reflected a genuine concern for the function of teaching. They likewise reflected dissatisfaction with the status quo and a desire for the University to follow policies that will insure a constantly ascending curve so far as the level of teaching performance is concerned.
>
> The University of Oregon does place major emphasis on the effectiveness of a faculty member in the classroom in determining whether he should be granted tenure, should be promoted, and should be given increases in salary.

The OSU senate reflected somewhat the same sentiment when it passed a motion on September 30, 1965 calling for a letter to be sent to Chancellor Lieuallen concerning the merit award plan. The letter reported OSU's decision to participate in the plan in the 1965-66 school year, but it also observed that the substantial number of negative votes in the senate, when participation in the plan was under consideration, indicated that the senate was raising questions of "feasibility and principle." Among the reservations cited in the letter was this one:

> That the lack of effort to improve undergraduate teaching at OSU, as well as at other institutions in the state system, is evident. Teaching is a difficult and complex profession. That it is continuously improvable, like all professions, is hardly open to question. But to some OSU faculty, the present plan is in effect an unspecified questioning of their professional competence, whether intended or not. The Plan directives offer no evidence that undergraduate instruction at OSU or at other institutions in the state system is now inadequately performed; a burden of proof is thus put upon the faculty.

And from the chairman of the faculty senate at one of the regional schools came this observation:

> There was another matter, however, which also divided the faculty, and this division was more bitter than that caused by the problem of student participation. The matter can be put this way: the adoption of the Mosser Merit Award Plan would superimpose a merit plan (involving $1,000 salary awards) upon the already existing merit pay policy of the Oregon System of Higher Education. Many members of our faculty were struck during the past summer by this "superimposition," and to tell the truth were very worried about it.

3. Faculty conviction that the awarding of money to individuals as "prizes" is an inappropriate and ineffective way of improving undergraduate teaching; that if the aim is to reward professors for effective undergraduate teaching, such rewards should be reflected in salary increases rather than "prize" money.

This view was well expressed by the OSU senate which reported that it had serious reservations as to whether:

> . . . the awarding of money to individuals as required by the Plan is an appropriate and effective way of improving our undergraduate teaching. The concerns of the OSU faculty regarding the form and method of rewarding under the Plan fall into three categories. First, many faculty members believe that dollar rewards, if given at all, should be given as salary adjustments rather than as prizes. Second, monetary inducements to individuals aside from salary adjustments are felt to be inappropriate to our profession. Finally, it is not clear how the awarding of money to individuals is to have a bettering effect on undergraduate teaching or how any predicted improvement can be measured.

The chairman of the faculty senate in one of the regional colleges expressed similar sentiments in these terms:

> The making of awards of this nature is an appeal to an extrinsic type of motivation of faculty members. It is a documented fact that extrinsic motivations are less successful in bringing about lasting changes in human behavior than are intrinsic motivations and that their results are often damaging.

4. Faculty concern that the merit award plan would create a divisiveness in the faculty destructive of faculty morale. The concern of the faculties was that the distribution annually of $1,000 awards to a significant fraction of the faculty, on the basis of teaching merit, with all of the attendant publicity, would create a serious divisiveness within the faculty destructive of faculty morale.

To the layman such faculty concern may seem difficult to comprehend, particularly when he reflects upon the fact that:

a. The institutions make point of the fact that the general salary plan in the state system results in the awarding of salary increases on the basis of merit, measured, they say, in part, on the basis of teaching effectiveness.

b. Several of the institutions have, for a number of years past, annually selected, with some fanfare, one or two faculty members to be honored for their demonstrated teaching abilities. In some institutions a cash award is made to those thus honored ($1,000 at the University of Oregon).

Why, then, the fear that the merit award plan would create a divisiveness within the faculty more than do the salary increases based on merit, or the special awards for teaching excellence currently being given by some of the institutions?

The answer is that the faculties see the merit plan awards in an entirely different light, for the following reasons:

a. In the case of the merit plan awards, special publicity is given to the winners of the awards for teaching excellence, whereas in the case of salary increases based upon merit, there is no public announcement of the salary increases given. Hence, the public is unaware of the increments in salary granted individual faculty members on the basis of merit. Moreover, not even the members of the faculty are aware of the salary increases granted colleagues on the staff, except perhaps within their own department, and even then usually only as faculty members exchange information informally. If merit salary increases were publicly announced for each faculty member, as the merit plan awards were intended to be, the hazards to the morale of the staff would be increased by the merit salary plan in effect in the state system.

b. As for the special awards for teaching excellence granted annually by some of the institutions to one, or even three faculty members, these are considered not to lead to invidious comparisons between or among faculty members. For if only one or possibly two from among a faculty of four to five hundred are to be singled out for honors, the remaining faculty members generally feel no sense of loss or deprivation at not being selected. The individual faculty member comforts himself, if he thinks about the matter at all, with the thought that there are several hundred other faculty members who were also passed over in the selection and that he, like any one of the other hundreds, who were not thus honored, may well have been second or third or fourth on the list from which the winner was selected. Faculty members see the matter quite differently, however, when there are 70 or 75 awards of $1,000 each to be given annually, with some fanfare, to that many faculty members from among the two to three hundred faculty members who teach enough undergraduate courses to qualify for consideration for an award. Failure to find his name among the large number of faculty members receiving a special award widely publicized, tends to lead to a sense of loss and deprivation for many faculty members, and tends to create in them a defensiveness adversely affecting faculty morale.

5. Many faculty members opposed the merit award plan for teaching excellence because they believe that it is impossible to measure teaching effectiveness with sufficient precision to make the selection of award winners any more than an exercise in futility. Without seeking here to judge the validity of this contention, we state, briefly, typical assertions made by those who hold the foregoing view:

   a. Teaching effectiveness should be measured in terms of the results of teaching. The results of teaching ought to be expressed in terms of the impact of teaching upon the behavior of the student - the way he thinks and the way he acts. The results of teaching can be measured, therefore, only in terms of the later behavior of students. That behavior is affected by so many factors, academic and nonacademic, that it is not possible to determine with any acceptable degree of precision the nature and the extent of a given teacher's impact upon the life-style of the individual student as reflected in his conduct in later years.

   b. The judgments of the teaching effectiveness of a given teacher are affected by: (1) the evaluator's conception of the objectives of the instruction, (2) the values placed upon these objectives and purposes by the individual doing the evaluating. Since there may well be and usually is wide variation in the values people ascribe to the same purpose or objective, and since values may be as important as measurement in the observation of teaching performance, it is obvious that teachers, administrators, and patrons may have wide disagreements concerning the teaching effectiveness of any given teacher.

   c. It is not possible to judge the teacher's effectiveness in teaching on the basis of a sampling of what the teacher does or a sampling of his behavior. Moreover, there is disagreement as to what contributes most to teaching effectiveness.

   d. The conditions under which teachers teach vary markedly, necessitating the evaluation of teacher behavior in terms of the conditions under which the teacher is teaching. Desirable teaching conditions for one teacher may be unfavorable for another. The numbers of students, their characteristics, the physical facilities, the teaching tools available, and the nature of the course being taught, are among the kinds of variable factors that must be weighed in judging the performance of a teacher.

   e. Personal bias and other emotional factors make difficult a meaningful evaluation of teaching effectiveness. Particularly where students are concerned, emotional factors are likely to have an undue weight, making of the evaluation what some have referred to as a popularity contest.

Whatever the validity or lack of validity of these objections to efforts to measure teaching effectiveness, it is obvious that these same plaints are as valid or invalid in the assessment of teaching effectiveness as one basis for determining merit salary increases as they are when applied to the merit award plan program.

6. If special funds are to be set aside, as merit award program funds were, for encouraging the improvement of undergraduate instruction (as distinguished from rewarding teaching excellence), faculties feel that there are more effective ways of using the funds than distributing them as "prize" money among faculty members. Throughout the months following the announcement of the availability of merit award plan funds for teaching excellence, discussions of the plan proceeded often on the seeming assumption that rewarding undergraduate teaching excellence and the encouragement of improvement of undergraduate teaching are synonymous. They are not. The merit award plan was intended to reward teaching excellence at the undergraduate level. That such rewarding might conceivably have an impact on the improvement of undergraduate instruction is not to be denied. However, if the improvement of undergraduate instruction were the principal aim, there are alternative approaches other than making special money awards to meritorious instructors in the form of a "prize." And since, generally, faculties felt that the financial recognition of excellence of teaching should be made through the merit salary program already in existence in the state system, they tended to want to use the merit award plan money for other purposes, having as their aim the encouragement of the improvement of undergraduate instruction. Several of the institutions presented plans to the Board's office for using merit award plan funds in one of these alternative ways. They had, in each case, to be told that their plan did not provide for the rewarding of teaching excellence in the way stipulated by the guidelines established by the subcommittee of the Ways and Means Committee, which sponsored the merit award plan and secured the funds therefor from the legislative assembly.

Without attempting an exhaustive treatment, we present here a sampling of the alternative uses proposed by the several institutions for the merit award plan funds.

a. Additional teaching staff could be employed to decrease the student-teacher ratio in undergraduate classes, and thus, permit an increase in student-faculty contacts. This suggestion came particularly from the regional colleges, though it was also mentioned by the universities.

b. More clerical and other supporting staff might be hired to reduce the non-teaching work of instructors, allowing them more time for class planning and student conferences. The institutions hold that it is poor economy to seek to save by reducing the funds for non-teaching personnel (clerical and secretarial) to the point where professors find it necessary to undertake tasks that could more efficiently be accomplished by a clerk or secretary.

c. Counseling and advising services for students could be increased and improved through employment of additional professional staff as well as through the release of faculty time for more informal student-faculty contacts.

d. More adequate travel allowances could be made available to teaching staff to encourage them to keep up in their subject fields through participation in professional meetings. This is of critical importance to Oregon institutions, isolated as we are from the major population centers of the Midwest and East where so many of the professional meetings for college and university faculties are held. This is critical, not alone to retention of able staff members, it is vital, too, to our ability to interest able staff members to come to Oregon from centers of intellectual leadership in the Midwest, East, and California.

e. More modern equipment and other teaching resources, including library resources, could be furnished our institutions. In every institution in the state system additional funds could be spent with profit for the purchase of equipment of various kinds, useful to teachers, and for augmenting of the funds for library purchases.

f. More staff time could be allocated to research and experimentation with innovative techniques in instruction. Funds which would make it possible to provide released time to faculty members with ideas, initiative, and interest in the improvement of undergraduate instruction would be well utilized in the institutions. Limited funds are presently available for such purposes in the several institutions. An augmentation of these funds would seem fully justified.

g. Basic salaries for undergraduate teachers could be made more attractive for recruiting and holding outstanding teachers in the continuing competition with other institutions and with industry and government.

The augmentation of the basic salary funds for the institutions of the state system as a means of recognizing teaching excellence would recognize that salary funds are presently being distributed on the basis of faculty merit, and would avoid imposing one merit pay plan upon another, as faculties felt the merit award plan for teaching excellence did.

Coming specifically to observations made by individual institutions of the state system concerning alternative uses of the merit award plan funds, we cite several as illustrative of institutional positions.

> More constructive results in instructional improvement can be achieved by means other than monetary "awards" to selected individual staff members. Our experience sustains the position that reduced student-teacher ratios, freedom for experimentation and innovation, reasonable teaching FTE, and professional contacts with others in one's discipline are the most effective means of bringing about change and stimulating improved teaching. (OCE)
>
> Quite a number of alternatives /to the use of merit award plan funds for cash awards to faculty members/ were suggested, most of them pointing out that the greatest improvement could be gained by reducing the fifteen hour teaching load that has been standard at Eastern Oregon College since the foundation of the institution. Some faculty, who recognized that the amount of the awards would not greatly increase the number of

> staff members available, suggested that the money be used for providing more secretarial help for the faculty members and at least lower the ratio between faculty members and faculty-secretarial time which is over 25 to one. Another suggestion was to lower the amount of the awards by increasing the number given. Most of the advice seemed to recognize a relationship between faculty morale and effective teaching and felt that any plan that singled out individuals would have a tendency to lower faculty morale, but any plan that gave them more direct assistance in some of their time-consuming but less important phases of their job would work to improve the total morale. (EOC)

At OSU where faculty were given a systematic means of suggesting alternative uses for the merit award plan funds, the following summarizes the views expressed:

> A questionnaire was used to poll faculty members for suggestions and opinions concerning alternatives to the present plan. The questionnaire asked the faculty member to designate whether suitable alternative uses of the money might be: (1) development of a strong honors program, (2) larger cash awards to fewer teachers, or (3) improvement of the library. Space was provided for other suggestions instead of or in addition to these three.
>
> It seems apparent from the . . . figures that there is a strong feeling among the faculty that the money should be dedicated to salaries, either in improvement of present levels, or hiring of additional personnel.
>
> One must, however, evaluate these sentiments in the light of the amounts of money available - in 1966 only $47,000. The most popular single response was that of a general adjustment of salaries through regular channels. . . . Also mentioned in the context of salary increases was the possibility of granting merit increases to the good teachers - as judged by deans or department heads . . .
>
> . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
>
> . . . According to the results of the faculty poll, it would appear that strengthening the areas of professional development (travel, training programs, visiting lecturers, etc.), the honors programs and libraries are the more immediately necessary. Such programs could be advanced significantly by dedication of the available funds, and might give the undergraduate program at Oregon State a good boost in overall quality because they would be available to assist all of the faculty rather than just those receiving the awards. (OSU)

Whatever may be said of the merit award plan for teaching excellence, it must be acknowledged that the plan generated more discussion of what the institutions are currently doing to demonstrate their interest in high quality undergraduate teaching than anything that has transpired in recent years.

As one dean of faculty in an institution participating in the 1965-66 plan put it:

> Despite disclaimers to the contrary, there is evidence of a greater awareness on the part of the faculty, not only of the political aspects of undergraduate teaching but also for the actual quality of that teaching. The plan [merit award plan for teaching excellence] and the controversy surrounding it are responsible for at least some of this increased awareness. (OSU)

# APPENDIX B

## Recommended Guidelines for Development of Institutional Plans for the Distribution of Merit Awards for Teaching Excellence

We, the undersigned, recommend to the Chancellor and to the institutional executives the adoption of the following guidelines, developed by the committee, to guide the institutions in the development of their plans for the distribution of the merit awards for teaching excellence.

The recommended guidelines set forth what we understand to be the ends to be served by the merit award program, and a limited number of specific guidelines in addition. But beyond these, it is the committee's view that the individual institutions should be granted freedom to develop their plans in accordance with the needs and the desires of the institution, having always in mind, of course, the ultimate ends the merit award program is designed to serve.

We have appended to our recommended guidelines the guidelines provided by the Ways and Means Subcommittee, with which we believe our proposed guidelines to be fully in accord.

Dean Emery Castle, OSU
Dean Charles Duncan, UO
Dean Carlos Easley, EOC
Dean Esby McGill, SOC
Dean Paul Meier, OTI
Dean Frank Roberts, PSC
Dean Walter Snyder, OCE
Dr. Miles C. Romney, Vice Chancellor, Chairman

August 26, 1965

## RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF INSTITUTIONAL PLANS FOR THE DISTRIBUTION OF MERIT AWARDS FOR TEACHING EXCELLENCE

I. The development of the merit award plans for the several institutions should be left to the institutions.

A. The success of the merit award plan in each of the institutions is dependent upon the degree to which the plan is accepted by the faculty.

B. Faculty acceptance of the plan is dependent in large measure upon the extent to which the faculty has participated in the development of the plan and the extent to which the final plan adopted by the institution is seen by the faculty to reflect the views of the faculty.

II. The plans developed by the institutions, while reflecting institutional differences, should be devised to achieve, as nearly as may be, the ultimate ends which the merit award program is designed to serve. These ends are understood by the deans of faculty to be:

A. To signify the great importance attached to high quality undergraduate teaching by the legislature, the State Board of Higher Education, and the institutions of the state system.

B. To reward, by monetary grants, those faculty members who devote a significant portion of their time to undergraduate teaching, and who have demonstrated an uncommon ability as teachers of undergraduate students.

C. To encourage faculty members of outstanding teaching ability to remain in undergraduate teaching, or to return to undergraduate teaching, by providing them with incentives to offset incentives offered by research and other non-teaching activities in higher education.

III. The minimum required participation in undergraduate teaching to qualify a faculty member for consideration for a merit award grant shall be, in all institutions of the state system, an average of six credit hours at the undergraduate level during at least two terms of the academic year for which the faculty member is being considered.

The foregoing stipulation is slightly different from that stated by the legislative subcommittee to the effect that: "To qualify for consideration for a grant, a faculty member must teach an average of two 3-credit courses at the undergraduate level during at least two terms of the academic year for which he is being considered." The restatement above permits the institutions to take account of the fact that undergraduate courses may be 1-credit, 2-credit, 3-credit, 4-credit, or 5-credit courses.

The above restatement of the minimum undergraduate teaching load requires that to be eligible for an award, a faculty member be teaching undergraduate courses during two terms of the year for which he is being considered for an award, and that he be teaching an average of 6 credit hours of undergraduate courses for the two terms.

IV. The institutional plans must necessarily reflect the dictum of the Ways and Means Subcommittee to the effect that:

"Students shall be involved in either the nomination or selection of grant winners. They may be involved in both nomination and selection."

V. The 1965-66 undergraduate teaching load shall be used in determining faculty eligibility for a 1965-66 award.

It is conceivable that a student or faculty member may nominate a faculty member for an award on the basis of the student's experience with that faculty member during some preceding year, but to qualify for consideration for the award, the faculty member would have to be teaching undergraduate students in at least two terms of the 1965-66 academic year and his undergraduate teaching load would have to average 6 credits per term for the two terms.

It was agreed that the summer term should not be counted in determining eligibility for the 1965-66 grants.

VI. The merit award grants should be in the amount of $1,000.

The legislative subcommittee was not explicit in stating the size of the merit awards to be made. The subcommittee did, however, state that the merit award funds appropriated should be distributed among the institutions in multiples of one thousand, in accordance with the FTE of undergraduate students enrolled. Inferentially, therefore, there is some reason to believe that the subcommittee had in mind $1,000 grants, else they would probably have made no reference in the distribution pattern to multiples of $1,000, contenting themselves with a statement that the funds should be awarded to the institutions in accordance with the FTE of undergraduate students enrolled.

The deans of faculty feel that there is merit in the awards being of uniform size.

VII. Such other stipulations as the institutions may wish to make in their plans with respect to setting qualifications for consideration for a merit award should be determined by the institutions. As a general view, however, the deans of faculty believe that the ends for which the merit award appropriation was made by the legislature will be best served when the additional restrictions are kept to a minimum.

VIII. The timing of the granting of the awards during 1965-66 should be determined by each of the institutions in accordance with its own needs.

# APPENDIX C

November 10, 1965

## Statement of the Interinstitutional Committee on Merit Award Programs

Recent public reports relating to the legislative subcommittee's intent as to the merit award program for teaching excellence have led to a sense of uncertainty in some quarters as to the applicability of the merit award guidelines endorsed by this committee and adopted by the Board of Higher Education in October, 1965. The committee wishes now, therefore, to enter this statement as expressive of its views concerning the merit award program, the guidelines for the program, and the evaluation of the program.

1. The committee believes that the best interests of education in the state system will be served if the institutions seek assiduously to make the most of the merit award program. Anything less than a full and fair trial of the program would leave unanswered, in an empirical sense, the question as to the efficacy of the program. Moreover, refusal to accord the plan a fair trial would lay the institutions open to the charge, however unwarranted, that the institutions are not genuinely interested in undergraduate teaching.

2. The committee is of the opinion that whatever may be said as to the merits of the program, it (the program) has focused attention upon undergraduate teaching to a marked degree. Whether the considerable investment thus far made in the program in terms of the many faculty and administrator man-hours given over to its discussion and the development of institutional plans for its administration is justified, will depend upon the ultimate outcome of the general ferment occasioned by the merit award program.

3. The Committee believes that the guidelines for the merit award program which were endorsed by the committee and adopted in October by the Board of Higher Education are fully in accord with the legislative guidelines established for the program, as these were stated in the official legislative documents, and should form the basis of the institutional plans for the merit award program of 1965-66. When the interinstitutional committee began the drafting of the state system guidelines for the merit award program, it stated clearly at the outset what it understood from the legislative document to be the intent of the legislative subcommittee relative to the ground rules that the subcommittee intended should apply in the development of the institutional plans for the merit award program. The interinstitutional committee then devised the state system guidelines within the framework of the legislative intent, as the committee understood it. Among the legislative intentions, as the committee interpreted them from the legislative record, were: (1) that the funds appropriated for use in the merit award program should be used for making "grants" to individual faculty members teaching the requisite number of hours of undergraduate classes, and (2) that the "grants" to the award winners were to be $1,000 each. That the funds were to be used for making grants to individual faculty members is clear beyond cavil. That the "grants" to the award winners were to be $1,000 each seemed clear, too, from the language of the legislative document. However, because it was less clear than other

aspects of the document, the interinstitutional committee very carefully explained in the guidelines (item VI) that the awards were being placed at $1,000 each because the committee understood from the language of the legislative document that this was the intent of the legislative subcommittee.

Copies of the tentative state system guidelines statement were then reviewed by those who were closest to the development of the concept of a merit award program during the legislative session, both within and outside of the legislature. None of those reviewing the committee's interpretation of the legislative intent indicated in the slightest degree that the committee was misinterpreting that intent. It was only then that the tentative guidelines were presented to the Board of Higher Education for their consideration, at the October meeting of the Board, at which meeting the guidelines were adopted.

The foregoing being true, the committee sees no reason for recommending to the Chancellor and the institutional executives that any revision of the guidelines be taken to the Board for the 1965-66 school year.

4. If a written modification of the legislative guidelines for the merit award program is provided the state system from appropriate legislative sources, the committee feels that such modifications should be considered by the committee in determining the extent and nature of the modifications in the state system guidelines that the committee should recommend for the 1966-67 school year.

5. The committee believes that plans must be made now for an evaluation of the merit award program. The committee recognizes that there may be a disposition on the part of some to dismiss the merit award program out-of-hand - to make a totally negative evaluation of the plan forthwith. This would, in the judgment of the committee, be unfortunate. The committee believes that the evaluation should be made after the fact. The committee believes further:

    a. That the first and most immediate need is for the institutions to establish the plans and machinery for evaluating their experiences with their merit award programs during 1965-66, with a view to such amendments of their plans for 1966-67 as seem indicated.

    b. That insofar as the evaluation of the impact of the merit award programs upon the improvement of undergraduate teaching in the institutions, it would not be realistic to expect that any effective evaluation could be made of such a matter at this time, except for such subjective judgments as might be elicited from staff and/or students.

    c. That the present merit award program in the state system, both as a concept, and as a pattern of legislative and institutional operation and relationship should be carefully evaluated as to the long-range and pervasive effects of such operational policies, if these policies were to be applied generally, in the future, to define legislative and institutional relationships.

d. That consideration should be given by institutions to assessing, on a defensible basis, the views of the faculty and of students vis-a-vis the merit award program as a concept, and as to the specific features of the institution's merit award program.

e. That in the assessment of faculty and student attitudes toward the merit award program there should be sufficient commonality in the kinds of data gathered to permit ready collation of the data from the several institutions.

f. That if the present merit award program seems an unacceptable approach to the achievement of the purposes for which the program was established, the institutions should make explicit what positive, affirmative steps they are taking, and would propose to take in the future, to achieve these same purposes in a more effective way. That these institutional plans should constitute a part of the total evaluative report which is to be prepared by the Chancellor's office in preparation for the 1967 legislative session.

Dean Emery Castle, OSU
Dean Charles Duncan, UO
Dean Carlos Easley, EOC
Dean Esby McGill, SOC
Dean Paul Meier, OTI
Dean Frank Roberts, PSC
Dean Walter Snyder, OCE
Dr. Miles C. Romney, Vice Chancellor, Chairman